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ABSTRACT

Conference papers are clustered into three major categories: background--the past and future; current issues in rural and small school education; and individual and group roles in rural and small school education. Papers in the first category provide an overview of the basic changes in rural education, project a picture of rural education in the future, and look at research related to rural and small schools. Issues highlighted in the second section include school district reorganization, rural school finance, vocational education, rural cooperatives, career development, minority groups in rural and small schools, the myths associated with rural and small schools, population trends in Kansas, curriculum development, and teacher recruitment and retention. Papers in the third group identify the individuals and agencies that have been influential in rural education and suggest what the role of those individuals and agencies should be in the future. Papers cover the rural superintendent's role, leadership styles, political direction needed, the role of higher education, variables influencing rural students' college attendance, the relationship between the federal government and rural schools, the regional laboratory, the activities of People United for Rural Education, the role of interest groups, and the need for a strong education organization in Kansas. (CM)

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ISSUES AND ANSWERS IN THE RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOL EDUCATION MOVEMENT

Second Annual Rural Education Conference

November 10-11, 1980

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Gerald D. Bailey and Robert E. Scott
April 1981

PREFACE

On November 10 and 11, 1980, Kansas State University hosted the Second Annual Rural and Small School Education Conference. Approximately, two hundred people attended this meeting. Participants included administrators, school board members, teachers, state legislators and interested educators from Kansas and across the nation.

The purpose of the Conference was threefold:

1. to sensitize Kansas educators to the concept of rural and small school education.
2. to identify problems of rural and small school education found in Kansas and the nation.
3. to identify potential solutions to rural and small school education found in Kansas and the nation.

The Kansas State University Rural and Small School Conference Planning Committee met for several months to identify major questions facing rural and small school education. This Committee came up with several questions which were to become the central thrusts for the Conference. The following questions were identified:

1. How can rural and small school education be defined?
2. What are the most critical issues and problems facing rural and small school educators?
3. What kind of preservice training should prospective rural and small school teachers receive?
4. What kind of experiences should be provided in preservice training which acquaints prospective teachers with teaching in rural and small schools?
5. What kind of inservice training should rural and small school teachers receive?
6. What is the role of the federal government in rural and small school education?
7. What is the role of individuals and agencies in rural and small school education?
8. What strategies are available to solve some of the existing problems faced by rural and small school education?

In an attempt to address these questions, a number of recognized local and national authorities were invited to present papers which would deal with these questions. The purpose of the conference papers was to result in a major publication which could become a blueprint for rural and small school educators for the 1980s. The contents of this book are that blueprint.

The conference papers have been clustered into three major categories:

I. Background: The Past and Future

II. Current Issues in Rural and Small School Education

III. Individual and Group Roles in Rural and Small School Education

I. Background: The Past and Future

The 1980s reveal a renewed interest in rural and small school education. Tracing the historic footprints and identifying future directions of the movement are critical to any educator's understanding of rural and small school education.

Rosalie Farley's article "Rural Education: The Past Fifty Years" provides an overview of the basic changes observed in rural education. Definitions, leadership, trends and federal involvement are discussed by this longtime leader in rural education. Beneficial changes as well as problems created from these changes are highlighted.

Paul Nachtigal projects a picture of rural education in the future. He hypothesizes that rural and small school education will experience substantial change in the near future. While rural education has endured urbanization and standardization in the past, there will be a definite move toward rural reality in the future.

Jess's article on "The Quest for Better Rural Schools" paints an optimistic picture of rural and small schools. The author suggests that many people are unaware of the positive things that have happened in rural schools. Our never ending task, he observes, is to keep the nation's attention on the rural school movement.

Leslie Burke and Everett Edington take a look at the research related to the rural and small school movement. The authors point out that positive events are occurring throughout the United States even though many negative findings have been associated with rural and small schools.

II. Current Issues in Rural and Small School Education

The issues related to rural and small school education are numerous. Reorganization, finance and curriculum development issues are some of the most hotly debated issues today.

As a member of the Kansas House of Representatives, Don Crumbaker outlines legislation affecting Kansas reorganization of school districts from 1950s to the present. The reader should find the discussion on how bills are routed through the legislature interesting.

School finance has been of historical significance to rural and small school education. James Jess's article on school finance in rural education suggests that problems associated with rural school finance must be solved at the state and local levels of government.

As president-elect of the American Vocational Association, Jean Hanson speaks to the issue of vocational education in rural and small schools. The author argues that rural students need equal access to vocational programming.

In her second presentation, Hanson develops specific ideas about rural cooperatives. Hanson describes the process of cooperative ventures between multiple school districts providing vocational and other selected programming for students. The Pine to Prairie Cooperative Center is explained in detail.

Baskerville's article on career development focuses on the Lohrville Career Education Model and *Toward Community Growth* project in Lohrville, Iowa. A convincing argument is presented by Baskerville on how a school can initiate a

systematic attempt for offering opportunities to students in rural areas and how students can develop positive attitudes toward living and working in rural areas.

Willie Epps, a product of rural schools, discusses the plight of minorities in rural and small schools. Epps urges rural teachers to take steps to make students aware of the contributions of minorities and other cultures in the rural school curriculum.

Edington's article on the rural school debunks many of the myths associated with the rural and small school. He suggests that the rural school teacher is as accountable or more accountable than the urban counterpart.

Adamchak in "Population Trends in Kansas: 1950-1980 and Beyond" traces the Kansas population over the past 30 years and projects what will be happening in the next 30 years. Planners of rural education will be affected by changing patterns of population growth and distribution. This population growth and distribution patterns will have strong social and economic consequences for the state.

Douglas Christensen provides an insightful overview of curriculum development in his article "Curriculum Development: A Function of Design and Leadership." Christensen presents a series of concrete steps for the administrative leadership in rural and small schools. The reader will find that Christensen's suggestions are currently being practiced by the author in his own school.

Jim Akin's article presents a historical and current perspective on rural teacher recruitment and retention problems and solutions to small and rural school recruitment are discussed. The reader will find Akin's discussion of small and rural school visibility and public image highly interesting.

III. Individual and Group Roles in Rural and Small School Education

As we move into the 1980s, the individual and agencies will be taking a more definite stand on rural education. Who are these individuals and agencies? What should their role be? The following papers addressed these two major questions.

As a practicing administrators, Carlson suggests that the superintendent's responsibilities are great in the rural school. Experience, sound judgment and foresight are essential qualities for the rural administrator. As Carlson points out, rural schools do not have problems—they only have deficiencies.

Jack Larson presents a motivational dimension of educational leadership for the rural and small school administrator. The style and direction of leadership is enumerated. Larson describes three kinds of leaders: creators, maintainers, and destroyers. The choice of leadership is left to the administrator. The purpose of the rural and small school educator is to maximize efficiency and effectiveness in helping teachers.

Both Larry Thomas and Wayne Comer project the direction needed by rural and small school districts. These districts must obtain greater political direction. Changes in commitment, cooperation between and among administration and school boards and involvement of parents are concepts discussed by these two practicing administrators.

Ivan Muse's article on the role of higher education in rural and small school education stresses that the major role for higher education is to support rural schools through preparation of quality teachers for rural schools. Teacher education instruction must find new approaches in the preparation of rural teachers.

Downey's article entitled "Higher Education and Rural Youth" discusses the variables influencing rural students' attitudes and performance in higher education. His findings suggest that rural youth are not at a disadvantage when attending schools in higher education.

Tom Schultz's article on the role of the federal government reviews the past relationship between the federal government and rural schools. Several questions must be answered according to Schultz: (1) What is the present relationship? (2) What should the relationship be? and (3) What can be done to facilitate a working relationship?

Nachtigal describes the role of the regional laboratory in rural education. McREL (Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory) is striving to improve educational practices in several areas: minorities, handicapped, women and rural and isolated areas. The work in rural and isolated areas is emphasized by the author.

In his second presentation, Roger Baskerville highlights the activities of a political group in Iowa known as PURE. People United for Rural Education is a political organization which has achieved state and national attention through the leadership of Jess and Baskerville. The author discusses how the group has functioned to bring issues of rural education to the attention of the public.

Koepke discusses the role of interest groups in rural education. He addresses the roles and function of interest groups in training, inservice and lobbying.

Gallion is a representative of Schools for Quality Education (SQE) which is located in Kansas. The author discusses SQE's activities and the awareness that is needed by Kansans about rural education. He concludes that there is a great need for a strong rural education organization in Kansas.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface

I. Background: The Past and Future 1
Rural Education: The Past 50 Years by Rosalie Farley 2
Rural Education: The Next 50 Years by Paul Nachtigal 7
The Quest for Better Rural Schools by James Jess 10
The Effects of the Rural School by Leslie Burke and Everett Edington 13

II. Current Issues in Rural and Small School Education 16
Reorganization of School Districts: Late '50s to the Present by Don Crumbaker 17
School Finance in Rural Education by James Jess 19
Vocational Education in a Rural Setting by Jean Thompson Hanson 23
Development of Rural Cooperatives by Jean Thompson Hanson 25
Career Development in Rural Education by Roger A. Baskerville 27
The Plight of Minorities in the Rural School by Willie Epps 29
Looking at the Rural School in Rural Education by Everett Edington 31
Population Trends in Kansas: 1950-1980 And Beyond by Donald J. Adamchak 33
Curriculum Development: A Function of Design and Leadership by Douglas D. Christensen 46
Rural Teacher Recruitment and Retention by James Akin 54

III. Individual and Group Roles in Rural And Small School Education 57
The Role and Responsibility of Administrators in Rural Schools by M. Dale Carlson 58
Two Sides to Education: Technical and Human by Jack Larson 62
Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education by Larry Thomas 64
Pursuits, Problems and Pleasures of Rural Education by Wayne Comer 67
The Role of Higher Education in Rural Education by Ivan D. Muse 68
Higher Education and Rural Youth by Ronald G. Downey 72
Federal Role in Rural Education by Tom Schultz 75
The Role of a Regional Educational Laboratory in Rural Education by Paul Nachtigal 77
Political Action in Rural Education by Roger Baskerville 79
The Role of Interest Groups in Rural Education by John W. Koepke 82
Schools for Quality Education by Randall Gallion 83

Appendix A: Conference Presenters 85

Appendix B: KSU Rural Education Participants 89

Appendix C: KSU Rural Education Team 94

Appendix D: Rural and Small School Conference Program, November 10-11, 1980 96

Part I

Background: The Past and Future

Rural Education: The Past 50 Years

Rosalie Farley

Rural Education has been and remains an important segment of the American educational system. During the past fifty years, individuals and groups have been concerned about the quality of living in rural communities and the educational opportunities of students in rural schools. These schools have changed as the conditions in rural communities and the citizens' philosophy of education have been altered. Some of these changes have been beneficial, while others have created new problems.

Eleanor Roosevelt, at the 1944 White House Conference on Rural Education said, "The real reason for this conference is that many of our rural school children have labored under difficulties which must be made known to the people. It is important that more people, in city and country, know the facts so they will back up the plans made here by those who already know them, and have known them for years." This is the same purpose for this 1980 Conference on Rural Education.

The Distinction Between Rural and Urban Areas

Prior to 1900, all of the United States with the exception of metropolitan centers in the eastern and western sections of the nation was considered to be rural. It was a simple matter to distinguish between rural and urban communities. Later, the United States census classified population centers of 2,500 or less as rural. During the 1950s and 1960s, it was recognized that the former definition of "rural" was no longer appropriate. With the rapid changes in transportation and communication, the characteristics between rural and urban areas became more alike. Rural people had electricity, telephones, radios, and television. The farmer had cars and trucks and could travel to distant points and could use gadgets in the farm operations.

Another definition indicated that areas *not* included in "standard metropolitan statistical areas" were rural. This definition broadened the meaning of "rural." For example, in Nebraska, the entire state with the exception of Omaha and Lincoln would be considered rural.

Definitions of Rural Education

Rural education has had a variety of definitions and each has influenced the educational opportunities which have been made available. It has been defined in terms of population centers of 2,500 or less. On the other hand, it has been referred to schools *not* located in "standard metropolitan statistical areas." Some people consider rural education as pertaining to "small schools" without defining the meaning of "small schools."

Burton W. Kreitlow defined rural education as the process of bringing about changes in people living in rural areas. He stated that "the key is *not* in the number of people but in the relationships between people and people and the land."

The Influences of Shifts in Population

Millions of Americans have preferred to live in rural communities—on farms or in small towns. The living in rural communities permitted the people to know their neighbors and to share in their joys and sorrows. The villages provided services for both farm and village citizens.

With the changes in the means of transportation, a mobile population was created. Developments in technology and changes in the socio-economic and political situations resulted in increases in the population of urban centers. A migration from rural to urban areas became apparent as individuals sought employment opportunities. People who migrated from the rural communities to metropolitan centers were not prepared for urban living. In 1962, Robert Isenberg stated that there were two major problems. One was that the rural people who migrated lacked educational attainments and marketable skills. The second one was that the surplus of rural youth had been forced to leave their communities to seek employment.

In 1961, there were 54 million people living in rural areas—one out of every three Americans was a rural resident. From 1950 to 1960, the non-farm population increased 18.8 percent, while the rural farm population decreased 32.2 percent.

However, during the 1970s there has been a reversal of national migration patterns. Frank Triplett reported that the non-metropolitan areas have started to grow faster than metropolitan centers. While the population increased 4.8 percent from 1970-1975, towns of 2,500 to 25,000 rose 7.5 percent, and the smallest towns, those under 2,500, jumped 8.7 percent. These shifts in migration patterns could constitute some concerns during the 1980s and 1990s.

Fifty Years of Leadership in Rural Education

The developments in rural education have occurred as the leadership of individuals and groups has devoted their time and efforts to provide for educational opportunities for rural students. A number of state agencies have sponsored projects and programs for rural people. Some colleges and universities have been concerned about the living conditions and the schools in rural communities. It would be extremely difficult to list all of the individuals and groups which have contributed to rural education during the past fifty years. However, there are several that should be remembered.

The Department of Rural Education, NEA

The Department of Rural Education and its Division of Rural Service of the National Education Association was established to facilitate discussions, make studies, disseminate information relative to rural education; to extend the efforts and efficiencies of individuals engaged in rural education. The major functions were to promote advancement in rural education throughout the nation.

During the decade of 1930-1939, there were 188 papers pertaining to rural education read at the NEA conventions. This large number of papers included topics of: school consolidation, migration patterns, expanded ser-

vices to rural schools, educational programs, and the raising of standards for teachers.

In 1935, Howard A. Dawson became the executive director of the Department and the executive secretary of the Division of Rural Services and served for twenty-five years as the spokesman for rural education. Upon his retirement in 1960, a special commendation was given to him and Mrs. Dawson which included the following statement.

> *. . . His wisdom, courage, and tenacity tempered with his deep understanding of human needs and his delightful sense of humor, have shaped and will continue to shape the educational future of children and adults throughout the world . . . Further evidence of his leadership are the thousands of people, lay and professional, who attributed to Dr. Dawson the spark of inspiration for responsibilities in their local districts, state governments, organization at national and international levels.*

Howard A. Dawson was skillful in recruiting individuals to become staff members of the Department. Lois M. Clark, assistant director, Rural Services, is known throughout the nation for her contributions and leadership in rural education. Robert Isenberg, an assistant director, upon the retirement of Dr. Dawson assumed the responsibilities of the director. He also inspired people in rural education. Lewis R. Tamblyn was a member of the staff and later became the executive secretary of the Rural/Regional Education Association. This organization was formed when the Department of Rural Education, NEA was dissolved. The members of this Association have continued to provide leadership in rural education.

The Educational Policies Commission, 1939

The Educational Policies Commission published *Educational Policies for Rural America* in which it stated:

> *Rural education must have educational opportunities equal to that offered in the urban section if the traditional ideal of American education is to be realized. If rural education remains under financed and poorly organized as it is today, there is a grave danger that class education will prevail.*

The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944

The White House Conference on Rural Education was planned and directed by Field Services, Rural Service, Legislative and Federal Relations of the National Education Association. It brought together lay and professional leaders in rural education from forty-three (43) states. These individuals shared information relating to problems and situations in rural education.

During the general sessions of the Conference, the topics discussed included: "Education To Meet the Needs of Rural Children," "Education For Community Living In Rural Areas," "The Organization and Administration of Rural Education," "The Rural Educational Plant and Equipment," and "Paying for Rural Education." President Franklin D. Roosevelt stated . . . "the chief problem of rural education is the problem of dollars and cents . . . the problem cannot be solved by increasing the local taxes because the taxable values are just not there . . . I believe that the federal government should render financial aid where it is needed, and only where it is needed." The charter for rural children was formulated and presented at the Conference.

The United States Office of Education

This federal agency had the primary responsibility for educational leadership. Its function included collecting statistics and facts relating to the conditions and programs in education in the states and territories, administering federal funds for aid to education, publishing documents pertaining to education, furnishing booklets to schools, and disseminating information relative to organization, management, and instruction of efficient school systems.

The Julius Rosenwald Fund

The Julius Rosenwald Fund provided grants to build more than five thousand (5,000) schools in the South. It also made available funds for instructional programs of these schools through the publication of learning materials.

The Ford Foundation

The Ford Foundation provided funds for projects in rural education. Elbie L. Gann and Ralph G. Bohrson dited projects through the Western States Small School Project which demonstrated promising practices in meeting the needs of rural schools.

American Association of School Administration

The American Association of School Administrators has been and remains concerned about the educational programs in small schools. In 1937, the 17th yearbook of the organization, *Schools in Small Communities,* expressed the following viewpoint.

> *. . . the small school system should be regarded not merely as a mechanism for maintaining the best educational institution possible, but it can be conceived as the structure within which it may be possible to develop the best type of rural social organization and the finest rural culture.*

Fannie Wyche Dunn

Fannie Wyche Dunn, longtime professor of rural education at Teachers College, Columbia University, was concerned about the welfare of rural children. She began writing about rural schools in 1912 and continued until the latter part of the 1940s. She was preparing materials for a book on rural education at the time of her death. Since the manuscript was not completed, the contract could not be fulfilled. Fortunately, the materials became available to the Department of Rural Education, NEA, and was published as the 1951 yearbook of the Association. This yearbook and her other writings include insights and interpretations of the activities and experiences of rural children which are appropriate for today.

Trends in the Preparation of Teachers

One of the major concerns of the educational profession has been the preparation of teachers for rural and urban schools. It has been recognized that the quality of instruction is dependent upon the abilities of the classroom teacher.

As recently as the 1940s, there were available high school normal training programs for rural elementary teachers. These programs emphasized the subject matter to be taught in the elementary grades. The staff in charge of these training programs was small, in some instances only one person. The training program had a clear un-

derstanding of local, rural conditions, because they were trained in schools in their immediate environments.

Some colleges and universities created Departments of Rural Education. These Departments were concerned with the quality of living in rural communities as well as the preparation of school personnel. However, many colleges or universities were less concerned about the rural areas and provided few programs for the preparation of teachers for rural schools.

According to the National Education Association, from 1951 until 1960, one teacher in 14 held substandard certificates with 59 percent of the inadequately prepared being rural elementary or secondary teachers. In 1957, attempts were made to upgrade certificate standards for secondary teachers, but it was difficult to meet the needs of the small high school.

During the 1960s, educators indicated that one of the major problems in rural education was securing an additional supply of professionally prepared rural school personnel: administrators, teachers, supervisors, and special service personnel. It was recognized that in-service programs were needed for employed individuals which would permit them to become more effective in fulfilling their respective responsibilities.

During the 1950s and 1960s, there was a trend to disband many of the Departments of Rural Education in colleges and universities. The college preparation for prospective school personnel, including those in rural schools, was based upon similar approaches which included advancements in educational psychology, curriculum development, classroom management, methodologies, and educational administration. The differences were minimized between the needs and problems of students and teachers living in rural areas and those who lived in urban centers. The values of living and working in a rural community received few considerations. The problems of urban schools were the major concerns of the educational profession.

Upgrading of Certification Standards

During the past forty years, the upgrading of certification standards for school personnel have attempted to provide competent personnel for the nation's schools. The elimination of the high school normal training programs for rural elementary teachers and the upgrading of all certification requirements for teachers and administrators have narrowed the gaps between the preparation of rural and urban school personnel.

Changes in the Philosophy of Education

Prior to 1900, the academic philosophy of education emphasized reading, writing, and arithmetic. During the 1930s and 1940s, the progressive philosophy of education became important in the curriculum and the operation of the rural school. This philosophy stressed the worth of an individual and his development in a particular community. During the 1950s and 1960s the community school philosophy became acceptable to the citizens in rural communities. These shifts from the academic to the progressive to the community school philosophy changed as the rural citizens recognized the needs of the students.

The major principles of the community schools philosophy involved the community's understanding of the school and students, and teachers understanding the community. There were different interpretations of the community philosophy of education. Some educators recommended that provisions for learning should function in the local community. Others viewed the school as the core of the community with a close relationship between the school and community.

In 1943, Frank E. Henzlik wrote:

> *The small school was looked upon as a miniature large school. Blind imitation, or at best, cutting large schools activities to fit the facilities of the small school was accepted and hailed as efficiency . . . Many superintendents have utterly failed to recognize that the media for accomplishing of the objectives of small schools are frequently different from those of large school systems.*

He further stated that the community school implied a different approach to learning. The activities of the school and the community should be interwoven so that they became one process.

The Curriculum of the Rural School

Some types of learning activities and the use of certain instructional equipment are dependent upon the physical facilities. In 1947, Laverne Burchfield stated "many rural school buildings are entirely inadequate to permit the type of programs that these schools should provide. Lighting and plumbing are often primitive. They may not have attractive playgrounds and needed playground equipment."

The 1938, 1941 and 1943 yearbooks of the Department of Rural Education, NEA, were devoted to instructional materials and techniques. These yearbooks recommended adaptations of methods and materials which would meet the needs of rural students. During the 1940s, efforts were made in many states and communities to adapt the curriculum and instructional materials in the rural schools. A number of teacher training institutions assisted in the preparation of instructional materials which would be of interest to rural children.

Fannie W. Dunn recognized the need for guidance of rural children. She stated that they share the common needs of all children. The rural child's development, the same as any child, is determined by three factors: his/her inborn capacities, the resources for physical and mental nourishment, and guidance to use the available resources.

During the 1960s and 1970s the deficiencies of the rural school curriculum became a major concern throughout the nation. The limited curricular offerings, the lack of adequate instructional materials and equipment, and the traditional methodologies stimulated federally funded projects. Students, faculty, and members of a community became involved in program development and evaluation procedures.

Projects funded by the Office of Education, HEW, demonstrated effective ways to broaden the learning experiences of rural students. These projects included vocational and career education, non-graded instruction, team teaching, shared services, multiple class instruction, television and the use of mobile laboratories for elementary and secondary students. The implementation of these demonstrated ways depended upon the local leadership.

Trends in School Organization

The improvement of educational opportunities in rural areas depends upon making changes in the organiza-

tion of school districts. Too many school districts have been too weak to provide adequate educational programs. At one time, the local school or attendance center could meet the needs of the rural community. With the advancements in technology, transportation, and communication, new demands were made upon the schools. These demands included improved and expanded curriculum offerings, such as, vocational education and special education. It became apparent that these new demands must be provided at a level of excellence with sufficient financial support.

Since the 1940s, programs for reorganization of local school districts have received major attention. The individuals in favor of reorganization stated that the size of the school district was related to the breadth of the curriculum and the efficiency of the operation of the school in terms of per pupil costs. Arguments in opposition to reorganization plans included a fear of losing local control and the loss of community identity, the increase of costs, and the problems of transportating students.

In 1957, educators recognized that the goals of reorganization of school districts needed to be better understood. The distinction between attendance centers and administrative units was confusing to many individuals. In 1960, one of the goals of the National Education Association stated that "small and inefficient schools should be consolidated reducing the inefficient schools districts from 40,000 to about 10,000." It was recognized that the local school district must remain the key to public education.

In 1967, Ralph D. Purdy indicated that there had been too much of the negative approach through the use of the term of "reorganization." He believed that the emphasis should be placed upon *school district organization* of which there were two types. One being the local school district as an administrative unit that could provide and financially support a program of education broad enough to meet the various post-high school careers. The second type would be a larger administrative unit, sometimes on a multicounty basis, to provide educational services that would be difficult for the local school district to offer.

Intermediate Service Units

Intermediate service units were created by some of the state legislatures and were known by various names, such as, Boards of Cooperative Services, Cooperative Educational Service Agency, Intermediate School Districts, Educational Service Units, and others. Some of the service units provided only services and others provided services and administered programs such as those in special education. The creation of an area service unit permitted local administrative districts to operate with smaller enrollments. In many of the states, the intermediate service unit replaced the traditional county superintendency.

Federal Aid for Rural Education

The federal government has provided funds for vocational agriculture programs in secondary schools since 1917. An increase in federal funds to local school districts became available with the enactment of the Elementary Secondary Education Act in 1965. The larger rural school districts were able to secure funds through the approval of proposals which had been submitted. However, the smaller rural school districts lacked the expertise in preparing proposals or the enrollments of these schools were too small to justify seeking federal funds.

The approved proposals provided funds for certain programs which included special education, career education, library materials, bilingual education, and audio-visual equipment. These grants were made directly to local school districts or were channeled through the state department of education. Some states permitted an intermediate service unit to submit proposals for federal funds. These funds were used to improve educational programs in the smaller rural school districts, as well as in the larger districts.

Summary

During the past fifty years, there have been changes in the living standards and conditions in rural areas, in the philosophies of education, in the preparation of rural school personnel, in the decreased numbers of local school districts, in the increase of federal and state aid to education, and in provisions for students with special needs. These changes have occurred through the efforts of dedicated individuals and groups. It might be assumed that the concerns of former rural educators and citizens have been resolved. However, this would be a false assumption.

During the next decades, there should be efforts made by dedicated individuals to continue to improve educational opportunities for rural students. The values of rural living should be stressed. The recognition that the needs of rural students are different in some instances than those of students living in urban communities and the preparation of rural school personnel should provide for these differences. There remain too many inefficient rural school districts which cannot offer a broad curriculum. The community school concept should be considered in more rural communities. There needs to be more implementation of some of the demonstrated ways to improve instruction in rural classrooms. These are only a few of the concerns for the future.

If the urban migrations to rural communities continue, as predicted by Frank Triplett, small towns will face some of the problems of the metropolitan centers. Tight budgets and an expansion in community needs could increase at a faster rate than revenues. There will be new problems, as well as those which have been identified. The future for rural education holds many challenges for inspired, dedicated individuals.

Eleanor Roosevelt, at the close of the 1944 White House Conference on Rural Education, expressed the thoughts that I have today.

> *. . . If we know what we need, and really want it, we can get it, but we do have to know what we need, and I hope from this Conference there will go to the people of the country the knowledge which they need to get what they want.*

Dr. Farley was national president of the Association of Field Services in Teacher Education in 1962 and national president of the Department of Rural Education, NEA in 1963. She has received seven awards for outstanding contributions in education, including the "Distinguished Service Award" in 1978 by the Nebraska Council of School Administrators.

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Rural Education: The Next 50 Years

Paul Nachtigal

Depending on one's perspective, this topic can be either very awesome or very mundane. On the one hand it is presumptious to try and say what rural education will be like five years from now, much less 50 years down the road. Or one could argue that at the rate the practice of schooling changes, rural education in the year 2030 will look very much as it does today.

Having just celebrated a half century birthday, I have a new respect for what 50 years means. And as I look back over the last 50 years, 44 of which have been related to education, first as a student, then a teacher, administrator, project director, state department person—it seems to me that the major changes in rural education have been quantitative in nature. Through school consolidation, there are now fewer rural schools, and those that exist are bigger. Rural teachers have in most cases at least twice as much professional training as 50 years ago. There are now more instructional resources available, a greater variety of courses are offered most rural students. Rural schools have been asked to take on additional responsibilities providing educational opportunities for a larger percentage of school age children.

Schooling does, however, get conducted today much as it did 50 years ago—a teacher in a classroom with 30 students, plus or minus, using an assortment of textbooks and other instructional materials.

What about the next 50 years? Whereas the last 50 years have been primarily characterized by quantitative changes, the next 50 years are likely to be characterized by more substantive changes. Lacking a reliable crystal ball, how does one speculate about the nature of rural education during the next 50 years? Having been a science and math teacher somewhere back in time, it is helpful for me to think in terms of creating a formula for this kind of speculation. There are, as I view the situation, four sets of variables that we need to concern ourselves with four sets of ingredients which will dictate the future of rural education. In my mind, these variables are not preordained; they can be manipulated by those of us working in rural education. We can weigh some more than others.

The first set of variables which need to be considered are the existing trends in public education. Education, like any social endeavor, has a momentum, an inertia which cannot be overcome quickly. The shape of rural education will in part be determined by these trends, which include specialization, centralization of decision making, bigger is better. I will come back and talk about each of the sets of variables in more detail in a minute. The second set of variables is actually a series of counter trends which basically emerge from the recognition of the limits of existing trends, e.g. limits of specialization, limits of size, limits of centralization ... trends which have recently been articulated by writers such as Shumaker, Toffler, Rifkin. The third set of variables, one which we have not paid much attention to in recent years, is acknowledging existing reality of rural communities. We in education generally behaved as if schools in rural communities are just smaller versions of schools in urban communities. This, I think, will change in the coming years.

The final variable, and this may very well be the most important, consists of the values, the philosophy which we as educational leaders bring to the field. What we really believe rural education ought to be will influence to a large extent how we mix the ingredients, how we balance the equation.

Let's look more specifically at each of the four sets of ingredients in more detail before attempting to sketch a picture of rural education in the year 2030. Existing trends in education which are likely to continue to dominate rural education in the near future are those trends which characterize the mass production model of education implemented in this country. This model as it becomes perfected calls for more and more specialization. Students are divided up into grade levels and then sub-grade levels and then into gifted, Title I's, handicapped, EMR's ... Teachers are not science teachers; they are biology teachers or chemistry teachers. Administrators, at one time "principal teachers," now take on all manner of special titles ... By current standards, the greater number of divisions, the greater number of course offerings a high school education can be broken down into, the better the program.

A corollary to specialization is the notion that bigger is better, a notion which underlies the widely accepted school consolidation policy which over the past 50 years has closed the one-room country schools and moved the students to town. In many areas of the country, a second round of consolidation has taken place which often as not removes schools from small towns and places them back out in the country.

A third major trend currently characterizing rural education is the centralization of decision making. More and more of the important education decisions are made further and further away from the local community. Many of those decisions critical to the operation of small rural schools are not even made in the public sector. Textbook companies dictate many if not most of the curriculum decision in the small schools. Professional organizations are making more and more budget decisions on working conditions. State and federal mandates dictate to a large extent how schools operate Title I, 94-142-Title IX, teacher certification, accreditation ... enough of that. I'm sure you know the picture better than I.

A fourth trend which currently permeates rural education is the one-best-system/melting pot notion of schools and society, a theory of taking all the ethnic/cultural differences and boiling them down into a uniform product. The common school system has been a major vehicle for accomplishing this homogenization of society. It has not been too long ago that students were punished for speaking a language other than English in the classroom. Bilingual/bicultural education is still not a widely accepted practice in most schools.

While these trends are likely to continue to dominate the immediate future of rural education, there are now strong indications that the pendulum is beginning to swing the other way. Tofler in his new book, THE THIRD WAVE, articulates this swing of the pendulum. Rather

than a mass/homogenous society, he sees the onset of a demassification of society, a society in which opinions about everything from religion to politics to education are becoming less uniform; the diversity of thinking is on the increase, not decrease. In such a society Tofler suggests that securing a clear majority on any issue will be more and more difficult. And even if one can build a coalition to gain a majority on any issue, the coalition is likely to *not* hang together on any other issue. The classic example of bootleggers and fundamentalist churches joining together to prevent the sale of hard liquor in many eastern Kentucky counties will become commonplace in other policy areas.

As the pendulum swings back and we move from the concept of a mass society, we will see increased demands for shared decision making. Workers, consumers, parents will insist on participating in the control of organizations, particularly the schools. The giant bureaucracies will begin to crack, toppling from their own weight and inefficiency.

Again drawing on concepts from mathematics, these societal changes are emerging because the current trends, the current existing concepts of how best to conduct the business of society and schooling in particular have reached their limit. They have reached the point of diminishing returns.

For instance what is there to gain at the elementary, secondary level of education from further specialization? Will a finer classification of students really make that much difference? Is it not better to have teachers who understand the broad structure of their content areas than narrowly prepared technicians?

The limits of size, the benefits of "bigger is better" have also been reached. We are now just beginning to realize that administrative overheads and increasing transportation costs readily eat up any savings from large centralized units, be they in education or industry. James Guthrie, in a recent article titled "Organizational Scale and School Success," concludes that economic efficiencies and improved education quality have not been realized from larger education units. What has happened has been a major decrease in the level of public participation in the schools. Where there was at one time a board member for every 250 constituents, the average is now one for every 2000 constituents. The president of an Australian automobile manufacturer commented recently that he would never again build a plant housing 7000 workers; dispersed, smaller units of 300 to 400 workers were more effective/more desirable both from a production and working standpoint.

The trend of centralizing decision making is also rapidly reaching a point of diminishing returns. Tofler maintains that as a society becomes demassified, the level at which various kinds of decisions are being made must be re-examined. Currently, far too many decisions are being made too far from the level of implementation. He believes much of the decision making will, by necessity, need to be more localized, although in some areas, such as controlling the resources of the oceans or further development in space, decisions may need to be made at an international level.

One does not need to look very hard to find all kinds of examples where decisions made at the federal and even the state level are inappropriate for small rural schools; implementation of Title I, the urban bias of Title IV-C in most states, accreditation standards . . .

Let's look more closely now at small rural schools in relation to these trends and counter trends. Which brings us to the next set of variables in our equation. To the extent that the isolation and small size have buffered rural communities and rural schools from the forces of a mass society, rural schools are ahead of the pack and in fact many of the characteristics of ruralness coincide fairly closely with those of a demassified society. For instance, in small towns there still exists a personal, tightly knit sense of community. People tend to be generalists, not specialists; there is a minimum amount of bureaucracy; the small size, personal nature of relationships is conducive to shared decision making; everyone can have their say. So in a more favorable climate, as the pendulum swings away from the mass production, centralized decision making, specialization concepts, the small rural school can indeed build on its strengths rather than spending all its time and energy trying to overcome its weaknesses as defined currently by a mass/urbanized society.

Before working our equation to see what rural education will look like in the next 50 years, we should consider a few more of the characteristics of rural communities which constitute this particular variable. The rural culture within which rural education operates still runs more on verbal conversation, verbal agreements rather than written memos. Who said it is likely to be as important as what's said. Time is still governed more by the seasons of the year, rather than a clock. Values are more traditional. The labor force is made up of entrepreneurs rather than corporate employees; rural people are more inclined to make do, responding to environmental forces rather than rational planning to control the environment. There is more a spirit of self-sufficiency, taking care of one's own problems, than one finds in the city, where problem solving is left to the "experts."

Rural education in the years ahead will be more sensitive and in tune with these characteristics while at the same time providing bridges to other segments of society with other characteristics. Too often rural schools, being a part of a mass production/urbanized system, have denied this rural reality.

The final variable in our equation of what rural education will look like in the next 50 years is perhaps the most important. What values, what philosophical commitment, what do we as rural educational leaders really believe that rural education should look like? The strengths and commitments of our beliefs will determine what exponential power we assign to this variable. If we believe that the standardized mass production model is the best for rural education, those trends may well be dominant, at least for a while. If one believes that there is more value in decentralization and diversity in education, then those trends are likely to emerge more quickly.

I would like to argue that as we balance our equation for rural education going to the year 2030, the counter trends of decentralization, smaller size, shared power, placing responsibility for change at the local level is more consistent with rural reality and that those two sets of variables will be weighted more heavily in the years to come.

What then will rural schools look like over the next 50 years? I would like to suggest that the changes will be more substantive than quantitative. School consolidation, while still appropriate for some situations, will not be a major factor in the future of rural education. Both rising

transportation costs and valuing the health of small rural communities will dictate against wholesale closing of small rural schools. The processes of schooling will become much more integrated into the total life of the community, with businesses, government, social organizations serving as an extension of the classroom. Entrance and leaving ages will be less distinct. The concept of teacher will be expanded to include non-certified community members as well as television and microcomputers. The training of professional teachers will move from narrow fields of specialization to a true liberal arts education. What will be needed in future years will be professional educators with a broad view of curriculum, a broad view of the world who can orchestrate the specific bits of knowledge and skills which students will pick up from this computer or that resource person. The curriculum will become more integrated. Math will be taught at an appropriate level without confining the content to general math or trigonometry. The interrelationships between content areas math, science, social studies, will gain more importance, with all learning geared more to making decisions about the way we live. What is the real impact of various pesticides and/or the disposal of chemical waste? Is solar or wind energy really practical and how do I determine what system is best for my needs? Involved in such decision making is basic math, physics, chemistry at its best.

Rural education will be more of a "hands-on experience" in the year 2030, built on the context of the local rural setting. Bronowski in "The Ascent of Man," states:

> *We have to understand that the world can only be grasped by action, not by contemplation. The hand is more important than the eye . . . It is the hand that drives the subsequent evolution of the brain . . . I have described the hand when it uses a tool as an instrument of discovery . . . We see this every time a child learns to couple hand and tool together—to lace its shoes, to thread a needle, to fly a kite or to play a penny whistle. With the practical action there goes another, namely finding pleasure in the action for its own sake—in the skill that one perfects, and perfects by being pleased with it. This at bottom is responsible for every work of art, and science too.*

Because of size and logistics, students in rural schools can have access to the real context of learning. Rural education in the next 50 years will do a better job of providing options for its graduates. Existing programs, which are for the most part, college prep-future programs should do equally well in this regard, while at the same time offering training which will allow them to earn a decent living without leaving the rural community if that is their choice.

And finally we will accept the fact that rural schools are really an integrated part of this relationship. The education of children is a process that clearly goes beyond the confines of the school. Parents, churches, the general community milieu are all important actors. Education in rural America is the one place where we really have a chance to put all of the pieces together.

For the first time this century, the prevailing winds are changing. Rural education has endured 80 years of urbanization and standardization. The climate to move in another direction is becoming more favorable. By the end of the century, we should be well on our way to having a rural education system much more in tune with rural reality.

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The Quest for Better Rural Schools

James Jess

When Jerry asked me to speak at your luncheon, I said I would but on one condition. The condition being that I limit my remarks to twenty minutes. I did that for two reasons. First, I know how difficult it is to sit for more than twenty minutes after eating a good meal and drinking several cups of coffee without the urge to hit the comfort station and second, I'm learning how difficult it is to be the one who gets up to speak for more than 20 minutes after such an event for the very same reason. I do appreciate the opportunity of being invited back to Kansas State for the Second Annual KSU Rural and Small School Conference. Your conference coordinators, Jerry Bailey and Bob Scott, did one heck of a job lining up two days of excellent program topics and presenters. I've attended many rural and small school conferences during the last four years and I congratulate both Jerry and Bob for putting together one of the more meaningful meetings that I've yet attended. When I received my conference program agenda a few weeks ago and saw names like Mary Gereau, Paul Nachtigal, Ivan Muse, Harold Blackburn, Ev Edington, Tom Schultz and my Iowa colleague, Roger Baskerville, on the program, I knew the conference would have to be a good one. A good one because these are many of the people who were responsible for helping to draw national attention to the important issues and problems of rural education. I have had the opportunity to work or visit with all of these individuals at one time or another and I can attest to the hard work and sincere effort that they have given to helping make rural education an emerging priority in American education today. Something else that makes this return trip to Kansas special for me is the fact that this is not one of those gatherings of born again country folks like so many rural education meetings are turning out to be today because of the renewed national interest in rural education. Instead, you are a group whose interest and work in rural education dates back many years. It's no secret that ruralism and small schools have been rediscovered in America and that the interest in both has taken on new meaning for politicians, bureaucrats and professional authorities. This re-discovery of ruralism and the value of small schools has suddenly brought out of the woodwork and closets a number of befuddled bureaucrats, researchers and nostalgic educators who, a short time ago, would not have given rural education a second glance; but who now profess to be country cousins, enlightened advocates and old authorities of rural education. Don't take me wrong, I am grateful for any attention that anyone gives to rural and small schools.

It's interesting for me to look back only a few years to appreciate the progress that has been made with regard to the quest for better rural schools. If I may, I would like to relate to you just a couple interesting experiences that I have had to illustrate the point I want to make.

It was June 1977 that People United for Rural Education officially organized itself and began its work as an advocate for rural education and small schools. My motivation for helping to organize P.U.R.E. was based on the fact that I simply could not find any other group or organization at that time that was willing to assume an advocacy role for rural and small schools. The professional organizations in which I held membership were caught up in the problems and concerns of urban education and large schools, as were the other state and national organizations that represented my school board, teachers, and parents. For that matter, I couldn't find a sympathetic ear within the staff of our own State Department of Education, let alone find very many eager listeners in either of the houses of our State Legislature. So, when the idea for P.U.R.E. was conceived, I was ready to help put the idea into motion. Those of us who were original founders in P.U.R.E. understood from the beginning that the success of P.U.R.E.'s goals would depend, in part, upon the coalitions that our organization would form in the years ahead.

In August of 1977 I received an invitation to attend the Rural/Regional Education Association Conference in Colorado Springs. I had never heard of the organization before; but because it had the word "rural" in its title and because P.U.R.E. was looking for other organizations that were working on rural education issues, I decided to attend their conference in hopes of finding some answers to the concerns we were having. Much to my surprise, the 300 or so participants at that conference were mostly regional or county administrators and the programs on their agenda had little to do with the problems I was having in trying to keep a small rural school running. As a matter of fact, there was much informal talk about the need for more school consolidations and I was beginning to wonder why I, a small school administrator and one who had just helped mobilize an organization to combat further involuntary state reorganization, had wasted my time and money to go to the conference. At one of the social receptions during the conference, I was told by a past president of the R/REA that the P.U.R.E. organization would be the ruin of education in Iowa because of the strong stand we were taking against rural school consolidation and the fact that the organization was drawing much of its support from what he called radical lay citizens, the kind who knew nothing about education and were only interested in their selfish motives of keeping schools open in their small, dying country towns. Needless to say, I was becoming more and more frustrated all the time. About that time there was an announcement that a meeting not scheduled on the regular program was being called for anyone interested in discussing specific problems of small rural schools. I couldn't wait to get to that meeting. When I got there, I saw a room that could easily have held a hundred or more people; but instead, there sat Ivan Muse, Ev Eddington, Paul Nachtigal and six other people. That, my friends, was the extent of the R/REA interest in rural and small school problems back in 1977. Fortunately, that situation has since changed.

In October 1980 the Rural/Regional Education Association voted at its annual conference in Portland to change its name to the Rural Education Association. It was also voted to expand the organization's goal. Their expanded goal reads:

> *"To further the improvement of Educational Opportunities for all children in rural areas with additional*

attention to those for whom opportunities have been most severely limited in the past. This goal," the organization says, "will be accomplished by:

1. *Promoting state and regional delivery systems which bring about efficient and effective education for children in rural areas.*
2. *Serving as the national advocate and representative for rural education.*
3. *Stimulating discussion, research and policy development regarding equal educational opportunities for such severely affected rural youth as migrants, Native Americans and those living in rural poverty.*
4. *Providing coordination, at the national level, for rural education programs and activities.*
5. *Brokering assistance of appropriate agencies and individuals to meet the needs of small schools.*
6. *Encouraging colleges and universities to develop materials and resources specifically for rural schools and to train school personnel to work more effectively in small schools.*
7. *Encouraging the collection and dissemination of promising practices, statistical data, and other appropriate information relating to rural education as well as the sharing of services and resources among educational organizations and agencies.*
8. *Providing leadership for rural education related conferences and workshops.*
9. *Providing a forum for all those involved in public education in rural areas—including teachers, administrators, board members, and members of the rural community at large whereby they may come together professionally and exchange ideas.*
10. *Stressing the need for public and private agencies to develop specific educational materials and technology appropriate to children in rural areas."*

I am proud to be able to say that in October I became a newly elected member on the Board of Directors of the restructured Rural Education Association. I accepted a nomination for the Board because I feel the organization now has its "act together" and it deserves the broad base support of the rural community throughout America.

Let me turn your attention now to another interesting experience I have had. This one illustrates the changing attitudes in Washington with regard to the quest for better rural schools. In March 1978 P.U.R.E. was notified that it was the recipient of the National Volunteer Activist Award. Here was P.U.R.E., not yet a year old and the work its volunteers were doing in Iowa was about to be given national recognition. In April Janet Kinney, P.U.R.E.'s executive secretary, and I were elected to represent the organization during a week of all-expense-paid recognition activities in New York and D.C. and at the awards ceremony held in the Grand Hall in the Building of the States. During that week we dined at the Plaza in New York. We had a social reception with Mayor Koch. We had dinner with Governor and Mrs. Romney. We had breakfast at the White House. Our home away from home was at the Watergate Hotel. We were interviewed by the Associated Press. Let me tell you—for two hicks from the sticks, Janet and I were experiencing New York and Washington, D.C., like only a few people are able to experience it. I don't think I need tell you that we were starting to feel kind of important and proud of our accomplishments in P.U.R.E. Janet and I also thought that we should take advantage of our being in Washington and take off some time to visit with our congressmen and senators. Which we did and they were all very gracious. One of the senators also acknowledged our being there by making a statement about our award in the Congressional Record. On the morning of the day we were to leave Washington, arrangements were made for us to visit with the then Commissioner of Education, Dr. Ernest Boyer. When we finally arrived at Dr. Boyer's office after getting lost several times in the bureaucratic maze in the Office of Education buildings, we were informed that he had been called to the "Hill," a phrase we later learned meant that he had been called to Congress or to the White House. So instead of visiting with the Commissioner of Education, we were invited to visit with one of his assistants who, out of respect for what is happening in Washington today, I will not mention by name. He invited us into his office and asked us what we wanted. With all that had been happening to Janet and me that week, we decided we would lay our cards on the table so we proceeded to tell the assistant commissioner why we were in Washington. We told him that we had won this national award and the reason that we had won it was because we were actively advocating the preservation of the rural school, something that we felt was a symbol and focus of self-sufficiency and local control in a rural community. We went on to tell him that throughout rural America our old values and traditional ways of life were being threatened—or ignored by an increasingly urban society. We told him that our organization was working to combat this erosion of our way of life by communicating rural values, exploring the future of rural America and seeking ways to preserve the basic nature and integrity of our rural way of life. And then we looked at him and said—"and you folks here in the Office of Education aren't doing much to help us." He then turned to us with a look of disbelief and said, "I don't believe you understand the virtues of rural school consolidation and the many advantages that your rural children will have if they are able to enjoy the benefits of a larger, more sophisticated school system. I really think that when you return, you should sit back and allow the system to work." He then proceeded to tell us that we shouldn't be so critical of the work being done by the state and federal agencies because their job was to see that equal educational opportunities were made available to all children and that especially in our cities, schools were being faced with a multiplicity of problems that needed their attention. About that time I could see the fire starting to boil in Janet's body. She stood up, looked him straight in the eye and said, "What you are saying is all well and good from where you see education in Washington, but in the meantime who in the hell is looking out for the welfare of my kid out in the country?" With that remark, he looked at his appointment calendar which indicated our time was up and wished us a safe trip back to Iowa. It was after that experience in Washington that we made our contact with Mary Gereau who you had the pleasure of listening to yesterday when she discussed the "new awakening of rural education." With someone like Mary on our side, we found we had a spirited watchdog in Washington and one who was able to effectively rattle a few well-entrenched cages. Fortunately again, this has changed since our initial trip to Washington in early 1978.

The Carter Administration's Small Community and Rural Development Policy enacted by Congress this summer was an important step toward our quest for better rural schools because it reflects a major change in both the programs and the attitudes of the federal government as it seeks solutions to problems in rural areas. That

policy translates generalized concerns about rural problems into a set of specific goals, principles, programs and mechanisms for effective implementation. It was built on the recognition that rural Americans have extraordinary creativity, dedication and perseverance and that the role of the federal government should be to encourage and support the resources and resourcefulness of rural America and be a partner to its local leaders.

In September, Congress passed the Regulation Flexibility Act which calls for a complete federal review of all rules and regulations to see what effect they have on small and rural schools. And in October, at the Rural/Regional Education Association Conference, Norm Hearn announced that $10 million, which is a start, has been budgeted for a rural education initiative for 1982. The funds are to be used to: (1) Provide technical assistance to isolated rural areas in the form of Rural Outreach Services. Funds will be made available to create an Office of Rural Education in each State Department of Education. (2) Establish a Network for Communication. Travel funds will be made available to rural educators to enable them to communicate their concerns, as well as give their input to the new Department of Education. (3) Make funds available to support locally initiated rural education research. (4) Fund a Data Base in Washington, D.C. and provide increased support to the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. (5) Help establish a Model for Rural Services similar to the present Agriculture Extension Service System, and (6) Identify and validate successful rural programs and set a diffusion network for getting information out to the users of these programs.

Last Tuesday's election will definitely have its effect on the policies of the current administration. Therefore, it behooves us all to make sure that during the transition which takes place between administrations, that we actively seek support for the rural initiatives that have been started so that they will be continued under the new administration. In light of the strong belief in local control that President-elect Reagan stated throughout his campaign, I see no reason for him to alter the basic philosophy that is predicated in President Carter's Small Community and Rural Development Policy.

When I stood up and began speaking, I said I would limit my remarks to twenty minutes. As I look at my watch, I see that I'm quickly approaching that twenty-minute limit. But, before I sit down, shut up, and let you out for your restroom break, I would like to conclude my remarks by relating the following story. As I was getting ready to leave home for my trip to Kansas, I took my six-year-old daughter, Danielle, aside and asked her whose real responsibility it was to make rural schools better. "Why Daddy," she said, "it's the responsibility of all of us to make rural schools better." Therein lies the truth in our quest for better rural schools.

State Constitutions place in the hands of legislatures the primary responsibility to see that all children in their states are provided free access to public education. In turn, legislatures have traditionally passed on much of this responsibility to their locally elected boards of education. Because of recent court decisions concerning inequitable collections and distributions of education aid, many states have reformed their school finance laws. In this process of reform, many states have assumed a greater share of the cost of education. Unfortunately, when they increased their share in the cost of education, they also increase their control over local school decisions—for he that controls the purse strings also lays claim for control of decisions. What we are finding is that many school finance reforms failed to address the specific needs of rural and small schools because legislatures have tried to develop simplistic answers to the complex problems of school finance. Finance laws, if they are to meet the needs of both rural and urban communities, must be flexible enough to allow communities to develop and support educational programs that are best suited to their local circumstances. Until the problems associated with school finance are corrected, the quest for better schools will be severely limited. The role of the federal government is to provide appropriate assistance when and where it is necessary. Once the corrections are made in state and federal funding formulas, rural schools will be in a much better position to work toward rural school improvements. On the bottom line of the quest for better schools are those people who are most directly affected by them in their daily lives—the students who attend them, the parents who support them, the teachers who teach in them, and the administrators who are responsible for running them. We are the people who will have the final say in whether or not rural school get better or worse. I, for one, do not feel rural schools have failed. In fact, I am amazed that they have survived the past neglect and abuses that they have received from state and federal government, institutions of higher education, and the education profession itself.

In light of the many positive things that have been happening over the past two or three years, I have no doubts that a bright future exists for rural and small schools. As the rural and small school coalition continues to grow, it is important that those of us who are most interested in their future see to it that the renewed attention that is being given to our problems and concerns does not quickly become a thing of the past. Because rural people are indeed creative, persistent and dedicated Americans, I don't anticipate that any of us living in rural America are going to allow that to happen.

Thank you for inviting me back to Kansas.

Besides being the 1978 recipient of the RURAL/REGIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION RESEARCH AWARD, James Jess has chaired planning committees for four National Rural Education Conferences, has authored several articles on rural education, and during the past three years has addressed rural education issues at conferences, meetings, and national conventions in over twenty states throughout the United States.

The Effects of the Rural School

Leslie Burke and Everett Edington

In the recent past, most literature characterizing rural American schools does so in terms of what they lack—adequate staffing and equipment, financial resources, supportive services, diversity of course work and programs, experience and training of teachers and administrative staff (Kuvlesky, 1976; Coward, 1978; Fratoe, 1978). Students in rural schools were found to be lacking in structural opportunities, both educational and occupational, as well as the cultural background which would make later attainment more likely (Cosby, 1979). Their achievement scores, as measured by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), from 1969-72 show them scoring lower on all measures than every group tested except "low metro"—students from low income urban areas (Fratoe, 1978).

This kind of "stereotype" persists into 1980. In "Federal Initiatives and Rural School Improvement: Finding from the Experimental Schools Programs," Robert Herriot (1980) says,

"Rural individuals, in comparison to their urban counterparts are *more* likely to:

- be classified as functional illiterates
- score lower on national assessment tests
- attend public schools that expend less for instruction
- enroll in school at an older age
- progress through school more slowly
- complete fewer years of school.

and are *less* likely to:

- complete four years of high school or more
- receive vocational training
- attend public schools with support services and personnel
- plan to attend college
- enter college
- enroll in "adult education."

However, these and other generalizations about rural youth can be misleading. As Kuvlesky (1976) has said, rural youth are heterogeneous in their backgrounds, cultural heritage, values and aspirations. In fact, they tend to be more like their urban ethnic group counterparts than like other ethnic groups within the rural milieu. That is, a black farmer in Alabama is likely to hold values and aspirations which are more similar to those of a black city dweller of the same age, than to those of a white farmer in Alabama. The divergence would be even greater between that same black farmer and a white farmer in Iowa or Colorado. This is especially true now that reverse migration is taking place in so many rural communities. From the "back to the earth" immigrant who tends to be younger, better educated, more idealistic and of a higher socio-economic level than other members of his new community, to the "boomtown" immigrant who tends to be of lower socio-economic status and more acceptant of the often chaotic effect of rapid, unorderly expansion on the rural environment. These additions to the population of rural communities can only add to their diversity (Ross & Green, 1979; Mileti, 1979).

The diversity of the rural population is especially apparent when ethnic subgroups are examined. Even though most young people among ethnic groups seem to have bought the "success dream" of high educational attainment and career preference (Cosby and Picon, 1979), black and Hispanic rural youths tend to have markedly lower levels of achievement than white rural youths (Cosby, 1979; Cosby and Picon, 1979; Fratoe, 1978). Cosby (1979) identified 15 areas of influence which enhance or hinder a person's chances for attainment later in life: ambition, self-concept, encouragement, social origins, intelligence, academic performance, occupational knowledge, consequences of discrimination, school effects, athletic participation, attitude development and early marriage and fertility. Not surprisingly, he found (1) a positive correlation between social origins, especially the advantages (if any) of parental status, and attainment, and (2) that youth who were encouraged to achieve early in life tend to attain more. Unfortunately, blacks not only tend to start out with fewer advantages, but they also have more difficulty in transmitting any advantages they gain to the next level of attainment. They are less likely to expect that they will be able to achieve what they aspire to and are thus less likely to act on their preferences (Cosby and Picon, 1979). Levels of attainment tend to be even lower for Hispanic rural youth, with 37% of the under 25 population being functionally illiterate (Fratoe, 1978). In light of these findings it is especially sad to consider that in studying the changes in aspirations for rural youth in the Deep South over a six-year period, Cosby and Picon (1979) reported that the respondents' aspirations remained high even as opportunities diminished, with little indication of any basic realignment of preference levels with actual possibilities for attainment.

These ethnic subgroups findings should be kept in mind when interpreting data from national studies which give results for all rural youth of a certain age group, as does the National Assessment of Educational Progress. The NAEP is designed to measure knowledge, skills and attitudes in 10 learning areas and to measure educational attainment over time. It consists of multiple-choice, open response and free response exercises, and measures the percentage of respondents at each age level who are able to answer a question or perform a task. Rural students were measured at ages 9, 13, and 17 years.

As Martin (1979) points out, of the children tested and reported in the sample, only 10% are from rural areas, and the data shows no breakdown by region, race, or socio-economic variables. Taken as a whole, the findings are encouraging. The baseline data trend was supported by the change data, which showed improved rural performance to national levels for some ages in science, reading, functional literacy and social studies. Rural nine-year-olds seemed to evidence the most change. In science, their change was statistically significant. In reading they evidenced a positive change while other age levels stayed the same. In social studies, nine-year-olds closed the gap

between themselves and national levels. They showed a slight increase in knowledge, a significant increase in skills, and a decrease in performance on attitude exercises. Although there were national declines in citizenship performance, rural students narrowed the gap between themselves and other students, with the changes for 13- and 17-year-olds showing statistical significance. When functional literacy was tested in the spring of 1974, there was a positive change for 17-year-olds since 1971. In this area, rural students had changed most, coming up to national levels. In science it was found that rural students, especially 17-year-olds, tended to perform above the national level on practical "common sense" types of science exercises, while they performed below the national level on more academically oriented exercises. The 13- and 17-year-olds also narrowed the gap between themselves and the national level on social studies. Martin (1979) suggests that each set of exercises be examined at each level to determine specific strengths and weaknesses.

Easton (1977) did examine in depth the NAEP results in social studies for rural 13-year-olds. He fully reviewed their strengths and weaknesses in skill, knowledge and attitudes. He concluded that rural youths are more like the rest of the country in terms of the results than they are different. He also concluded that they are therefore receiving an "average" American education and that the "problems" of rural social studies education in general, i.e. difficulties of defining terms, agreeing on the meaning of results and the benefits of experiences.

Other studies indicate that rural academic achievement is on the upswing. The Canadian province of Alberta found that third graders in non-urban schools scored significantly higher province-wide on reading vocabulary and comprehension than their counterparts in urban schools (Clarke and others, 1978). The Southwest Regional Laboratory (1979) reported that when non-urban elementary schools in 20 western states were provided with materials and technical assistance over a three-year period, 83% of the participating schools were able to maintain or improve the level of learning in their remedial programs in reading and mathematics.

Gains in achievement for rural youth as a whole, while encouraging, must be interpreted carefully. It is likely that they represent more significant changes for white rural youth than for ethnic minority subgroups (Tweeton, 1979). These subgroups still need remedial programs, basic skills training and adult education (Cosby, 1979; Fratoe, 1978). Rural youths as a group need expanded support services, student retention programs, increased career and occupational information and training, and expansion of employment opportunities within the rural environment (Cosby, 1979; Fratoe, 1978; Tweeton, 1979; Cosby and Picon, 1979). With most rural areas having fewer resources in terms of facilities, staff and funding to provide the programs their youths so sorely need, (Fratoe, 1978) many areas find themselves turning to the federal government for supplemental monies.

Since federal money always has "strings attached," problems can arise with local boards and staff (Herriot, 1980). Not only must programs be designed to meet federal guidelines, but often change on any kind of large scale is difficult because of barriers inherent in the organization of rural school districts. According to Herriot, these include: insufficient means of obtaining information on instructional conditions within the district; dispersion of power among teachers, administrators and the community to the extent that the change process cannot be controlled by anyone; lack of consensus within the district and community about the kinds of changes needed; and inadequate feedback mechanisms for identifying and circumventing barriers to implementation as they arise. In addition, some local boards and staffs are suspicious of "the feds" and would prefer that the federal government allow local boards to run their own schools and make their own decisions (Edington and Conrad, 1980).

Some urban schools have apparently contended successfully with the mixed blessing of federal intervention. Chase (1978) reviewed 599 successful programs in high priority development areas such as action learning, cultural pluralism, basic skills, special education and school-community collaboration. A large proportion of the programs which were reported as successful by the 30 large cities involved were supported in part or wholly by federal funds. In fact, when analyzing the features which seemed to make programs successful, federal funding was one of the combination of three which Chase mentioned. Most important of the three, however, was innovative and inspired local leadership. In success story after success story, positive local direction was the key factor. According to Chase "Program leadership is the dynamic factor which maintains the cutting edge through continuing staff development, through enlisting central administration and community support, and through continual adaptation to observed needs and preferences of students." The third success factor was the involvement of the community as resources. This involvement was characterized by the recruitment of professionals and volunteers to serve as counselors, tutors, instructors, and resource persons; by the establishment of part-time and full-time employment internships through business, medical and social service communities, government, and the visual and performing arts; and by drawing in local professional and service groups to help develop an enriched learning environment for the schools.

The environments of rural schools are vastly different from those of urban schools, yet it seems that some guidance can still be taken from the successes of such urban programs. First, many rural communities, while they may not have the quantity of resource people and facilities available to them which urban communities often have, they make up for this deficiency with a spirit of commitment to and interdependence with their educative system. Community members often need only a little encouragement to become involved in a program, with the reassurance that what they have to offer is worthwhile. Secondly, in planning and implementing programs, staff in rural areas, overworked and underpaid as they may be, still are capable of the kind of innovation and inspiration which comprises a successful program. Witness to this fact are the many rural programs which *are* successful, the many staff members in rural schools who give time and effort "above and beyond the call of duty" to put together programs which provide meaningful experiences for learners. Often staffs just need encouragement from those who supervise or train them to motivate them to use their creativity and enthusiasm.

Finally, with signs that federal agencies are becoming more aware of the components of a successful program, specifically the importance of local leadership, perhaps there is a new hope that local and federal interests can coincide more completely in the foreseeable future.

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Part II

Current Issues in Rural and Small School Education

Reorganization of School Districts: Late 1950s to the Present

Don Crumbaker

What is a rural/small school? How big can it be? What is the criteria used for defining a rural setting? Is it a rural school when one-half or more of the students live outside the city limits? Is it a rural school when rural property becomes a major part of a school district?

We in the Legislature try to treat all school districts alike. We have, however, run into differences especially between urban and rural forces on school finance. It has been more pronounced in the past 3 years because the urban legislators have thought the rural schools have received an advantage. The rural legislators have resisted the changing of the formula to give additional funds to the urban school.

I gave considerable thought as to what we might discuss that would be of interest to you. The commissioner will undoubtedly visit with you about the State Board and Department of Education, and Representative Weaver will probably visit with you in regard to school finance. In the past few years we have had numerous opportunities to visit with school personnel that are young enough or from other states that are not familiar with some of the problems we have been faced with in Kansas. I therefore thought it might be helpful to review some of these problems the Legislature has undertaken to resolve since the middle '50s. Fred and I have been involved with these issues for the past 10 years and I know I have been involved with them since the middle '50s.

A comprehensive survey was conducted in the late 1950s. It was an outgrowth of legislative consideration of various school problems. A broad study of educational needs of the state was begun in 1955. During 1956-57 a series of conferences was held with interested persons on the problems in elementary and secondary education as well as those in higher education. As a result a preliminary report was submitted to the legislature in 1958 to conduct a *comprehensive survey* of the educational system in the state of Kansas.

Reacting to this report the 1958 budget session of the legislature accepted the recommendation and appropriated funds for the survey. They contracted with Dr. Domain to direct the elementary and secondary study and Dr. Keller to conduct the survey on higher education. Both of these gentlemen were on the staff at the University of Minnesota. My remarks from here on will be with the study on elementary and secondary problems.

I might explain that at the time this was taking place the legislature met in session only every other year. They appointed certain members to a Legislative Council to meet in the off year for budget purposes and other pertinent problems.

The Education Committee of the Legislative Council determined there should be maximum participation in the survey. It selected a 35-member Citizens State Advisory Committee who represented a cross section of Kansas geographically and occupationally.

In addition, each county organized a county survey group. Three tasks were assigned each county committee: Task I—Plan the kind of education needed by the children in their county to live successfully in the last half of the century. Task II—Examine the adequacy of the education programs in the schools of the county. Task III—Determine how to shift from Task I to Task II.

Tremendous amounts of data were collected and analyzed by the staff for the surveys. The conclusions of Dr. Domain and his staff were far from unanimous, in fact several of us filed minority reports on several points.

In 1958 we had 2,800 school districts in Kansas. Many of these were one- and two-teacher rural schools. Only 237 of the 2,800 districts provided a unified program through elementary and secondary grades. Of these 237 having both elementary and high school only 38 had enrollments of 1,200 students or more and in fact only 68 had enrollments exceeding 600 students.

The goal and recommendation of Dr. Domain was a school system of 1,200 students in grades 1 through 12. It was difficult and practically impossible, because of sparse population, to have 1,200 students in some school systems. His recommendation for school systems with less than 1,200 students, because of geographic conditions, was the state should be obligated to provide additional funds. Every school system should provide a complete educational program with emphasis on library facilities and a complete high school education program with a variety of subjects.

They concluded that the present system of school district organization in Kansas did not permit school systems of the size proposed. From 1943 to 1958 the number of school districts had *declined* from 8,400 to 2,800. This might appear impressive except for the fact that in September 1958 less than 1½% of the school districts qualified on the basis of minimum standards for acceptable districts. Various methods had been used in other states to effect district reorganization, however, legislation was the only successful method to completely change.

The recommendation of Dr. Domain for the reorganization was that the legislature establish a school district for each county to go into effect at the end of two years. During this two-year period counties should substitute alternate plans which conformed to standards established by the State Superintendent.

In 1958 the state support for schools was 32.6% with 29% coming from local sources and approximately 3% from federal funds. The recommendation from this report was to increase state support to 40%.

As a result of the comprehensive educational survey the first step in unification was taken in 1961 with the enactment of SB400. Before it went into effect the Kansas Supreme Court declared it to be unconstitutional. Even though it was declared unconstitutional, it served a valuable purpose. As I recall, the reason for the unconstitutionality of SB400 was that it did not give powers to the constitutional Office of State Superintendent. Most of the provisions in the bill appeared in later legislation.

In 1963, HB377, the first of the unification laws was enacted. It was also challenged in court but was declared to be constitutional.

This bill set up 106 planning commissions, one for each county and two in Johnson County. Planning unit boundaries were not county lines but school district lines with the home county located by the school district buildings.

The planning boards were instructed by law to 1. make a complete study of all school districts in the planning unit and prepare a summary for all patrons on or before January 1, 1964. 2. formulate plans for one or more school districts to meet the following: each district have a minimum 200 square miles of territory and a minimum $2 million valuation. These recommendations were to be submitted to the State Superintendent on or before March 1, 1964.

Planning board recommendations approved by the State Superintendent had to be submitted to the people for approval. Cities of the first and second class voted separately as did those in the rural areas and it had to carry in both areas before the plan could go into effect. Provisions in the law also provided that districts could be organized by petitions to the State Superintendent.

Several clarifying acts were enacted to solve numerous problems so that by July 1969, there were 311 school districts in the state, all unified and operating under the same set of laws.

In addition to the unification laws passed in the 1960s to bring us to the position we are in at the present time, other changes were made.

A constitutional amendment abolished the Office of State Superintendent and created a 10 member elected board of education as the constitutional body responsible for education in Kansas. This body is responsible for hiring the Commissioner of Education to carry out their policies. Legislation also abolished the Office of County Superintendents.

Two of the most volatile problems in unification were the closing of attendance centers and the transfer of territory. Before the unification law was passed any individual could apply to transfer their territory from one district to another. County Superintendents, directly affected, were the hearing officers and made the decision. In almost all cases the State Superintendent would approve the recommendation of the County Superintendent. Under unification this right of the individual was taken away and to transfer territory at least one of the boards of education had to make the application for transfer.

The other major problem was the closing of attendance centers. This is still a very emotional issue for some people and almost every year we get some kind of legislation affecting closing of schools.

A section of the unification law provided that a district school board could not close an attendance facility that was being operated at the time the unified district was organized if at least ¾ of the territory of the district that formerly owned such buildings was included in the unified district. To close the attendance center the board had to get the approval of the majority of electors in the original district either by petition or a vote.

This is still a very controversial subject and especially to me. I served as Chairman and member of the County Planning Boards in Thomas County. At all the hearings in every school district in the county we assured the people that they would have a vote to close their attendance centers. I have always considered that my word was my bond. Therefore, I cannot in true conscience vote for bills that will allow the closing of attendance centers by school district officials even though I believe in some cases they should have that authority. Many people voted for the reorganization plan because of this one stipulation.

In visiting with Dr. Horn last week he suggested I tell how legislation is submitted and adopted or rejected by the House Education Committee. As an individual you can contact your representative or senator and ask them to introduce legislation. If they think it is appropriate, they can introduce an individual bill and if it deals with education then it very likely will be assigned to the Education Committee.

In the case of legislation requested by the State Board of Education, the Chairman of the House and Senate Committees will meet with Commissioner Bolton and his staff and divide the subjects so that some will be introduced in both houses as committee bills.

Education is different than most of the other committees in that there are a number of organizations wanting legislation. These organizations include KASB, KNEA, United School Administrators, Schools for Quality Education, PTA and others.

In the House the chairman will generally appoint a subcommittee to meet with members of these organizations to hear their proposals and this subcommittee will either recommend approval or disapproval of these proposals as committee bills.

If a very controversial subject is asked for, the committee will generally ask the organization to get an individual legislator to sponsor the legislation. An example of this is bills on binding arbitration.

After the proposals are drafted by the revisor of statutes office they are introduced and generally assigned back to the committee on education. Public hearings by the committee are scheduled and announced the preceding week before the hearing. All hearings are open and testimony will be heard from anyone requesting it.

After the hearings, but generally not the same day, the committee will discuss and take action. If it is affirmative then the bill goes to the floor of the House for action by the entire body. If the measure passed on the floor of the House it then goes to the Senate for the same action, committee hearings and then to the floor of the Senate for action.

This is a very abbreviated explanation, but in the interest of time we will close.

We appreciate the opportunity to be with you and wish you well throughout this seminar.

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SCHOOL FINANCE IN RURAL EDUCATION

James D. Jess, Ed.D.

School finance has been and will continue to be one of the major problems that faces rural and small school districts. For state legislatures, school finance was the leading educational issue of the 1970s. The impetus for school finance reform came from state jurists and legislators. In *San Antonio v. Rodriguez* the Supreme Court ruled that the Constitution does not guarantee education as a fundamental right and left the design of funding systems to state discretion. State courts responded to the issue in quite a different manner. In a series of decisions beginning with *Serrano v. Priest* in California, state courts found fault with existing financing structures for failing to provide equitable collection and distribution of education aid. This prompted changes in funding structures which ranged from minor alterations to revolutionary new efforts. Equalization efforts generally reflect three approaches: high-level foundation, augmented foundation, and district power equalization. These programs, in theory, are designed to be structured around combinations of the basic components of school finance—district wealth, tax effort, and student need. A brief description of each program is necessary in order to understand how each operates and what each tries to achieve.

High-level Foundation

High-level foundation programs provide for a minimum level of per-pupil support funded through state and local allocations. The local share is raised through property taxes generated at a state mandated rate. State funds fill the gap between local tax revenues and the prescribed minimum level. The degree of equalization achieved increases as the mandated foundation level is raised, since a larger proportion of district expenditures become eligible for state aid. But disparities can become more prevalent as wealthier districts tax above the prescribed rate. The National Center for Educational Statistics found of the 11 states enacting this type of reform, seven reduced disparities, one state maintained its 1970 level, and in three states disparities increased.

Augmented Foundation

An augmented foundation plan focuses on both a district's wealth and tax effort. A guaranteed tax base is created by the legislature and local tax rates applied; the result is a minimum revenue base. State aid is provided to make up the difference between this guaranteed base and funds actually raised by the local tax system. This method provides incentive to increase the local tax rate since state aid increases proportionally. Once again the degree of equalization achieved is contingent upon the level of the guaranteed tax base. A relatively high base provides more districts with equal funds while a low base allows wealthier districts to spend greater amounts.

A percentage equalizing formula is another type of augmented foundation program which attempts to reduce disparity by concentrating on the degree to which state and local jurisdictions share education expenditures. The state determines the percentage of total costs it will support in an average district and then adjusts this figure to each local jurisdiction based on particular need and cost requirements. This adjusted percentage is then applied to total local expenditures to determine the level of state support the area will receive. The degree of equity obtained through this plan depends on two factors: the percentage of expenditures the state agrees to support and the overall expenditure level determined by each local district. The greater the percentage supported by the state, the greater the equity obtained, given equivalent total expenditures. If total expenditures vary significantly, wealthier areas spending more will receive greater amounts of state aid, and disparity will proliferate. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics three of the six states using an augmented plan based on a guaranteed tax base or percentage equalization formula have increased disparities.

District Power Equalization

District power equalizing programs guarantee a specific dollar yield for a given tax effort. Districts in which the tax rate fails to provide the guaranteed yield receive state aid up to the guaranteed level. Through the "recapture" provision in such programs, districts whose tax exceeds the guaranteed level must return the difference to the state for redistribution. Expenditure disparities could result if districts reduced their tax rate in order to avoid losing funds through the recapture provision. The lower tax rate would provide equivalent yield while enhancing the attractiveness of property value in the area, causing wealth disparity. The National Center for Educational Statistics found only one state of the eight states that have enacted this type of reform increased its disparities.

State equalization programs are evaluated by using two different standards: fiscal neutrality and expenditure equalization. Efforts to compensate for differences in intrastate district wealth attempt to achieve wealth neutrality. These reforms adjust fiscal capacity in order to provide that variations in expenditures will reflect differences in tax effort rather than wealth differences. In contrast, expenditure equalization efforts attempted to reduce disparity in per-pupil expenditures throughout the state. Absolute quality, that is wealth neutrality and expenditure neutrality is virtually impossible to achieve without full state funding. Even then special needs of students (handicapped, bilingual, and economically disadvantaged) and districts (small size, sparsity, and isolation) require special expenditure considerations.

In U.S. Department of Education Region VII each of the four states: Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska has used a different approach to equalization. Iowa was the first state to reform its school finance program in 1971. Nebraska was last with its reform coming after 1977. Each state's school finance system will be briefly explained. Iowa has a high-level foundation program. The state participates in funding 77% of the state average cost per pupil with this proportion to rise 1% per year until it reaches the 80% level. District per-pupil costs were

established in 1971-72. From 1971-72 to 1980-81 districts who were below the state average cost per pupil were allowed to increase their expenditures up to a maximum of 125% per year, whereas districts whose expenditures were in excess of 110% of the state average cost per pupil were held steady through 1974-75 and thereafter were limited to the state determined economic growth factor that was applied to the state average cost per pupil. Each district is required to levy $5.60 per $1,000 actual property valuation. Property valuations are the only criteria used to measure local ability to support schools. Iowa's state aid program compensates for special education weighting, declining enrollment, and 1/10 of the time that a student participates in a jointly administered program between or among school districts. No special allowances for transportation costs other than the percentage included in the original 1971-72 base cost per pupil are provided. The state guarantees a minimum of $200 per pupil in state aid only if a district's levy of $5.60 per $1,000 valuation which is required for local effort does not raise the entire amount that a district is allowed to spend. A local enrichment levy of up to 10% of the state average cost per pupil can be applied to the district cost if approved by 51% of the voters. The enrichment amount is raised by a combination local property tax levy and state income tax surcharge. To date, Iowa's school finance plan has not been challenged in the courts.

The Kansas Equalization Act of 1973 used the district power equalization approach. A district is guaranteed a yield of an approved cost per pupil when its local contribution is 1.6% of its wealth, adjusted for the relationship between its cost per pupil and a normed cost for its enrollment category. A four-year average of adjusted property valuation (based on 30% of true market value in money) and resident taxable income in the district is used to measure local ability to support schools. Every district receives 20% of resident individual income tax liability. Beginning in 1979-80, 90% of this amount is treated as an element of local effort in the general aid computation. Pupil count is total FTE enrollment. Federal impact aid is included in the state aid formula. The Kansas state aid program compensates for special education, bilingual education, declining enrollment, and a higher budget per pupil in low enrollment districts. All districts transporting pupils living 2.5 miles or more from school receive 100% of actual cost per pupil or 100% of the amount per pupil computed under a cost density formula, whichever is less, multiplied by the number of transported pupils. A minimum 6% increase in budgets is allowed. Budget appeal process is available for special programs. Three separate court cases have been filed in Kansas since 1973 which have challenged the Kansas finance plan.

The state of Missouri has an augmented foundation program which establishes a per-pupil foundation level and a required local effort of 16.9 mills (based on 33⅓% of true cash value in money) plus 57% of tangible taxes and 57% of fines, forfeitures, and escheats. The guaranteed tax base is $37,361 per pupil, a level which includes 87% of students. A two-thirds vote is required for levies above 37.5 mills. Seventy-five percent of the foundation level must be spent for teacher salaries. A new law passed in 1977 replaces the old school finance system; funding is being phased in over four years. A rollback amendment modifies the Constitution to allow the legislature to roll back mill levies in the event of statewide reappraisal. The Missouri state aid program compensates for special education and compensatory education. The prior year student count is used for computing budgets. No compensation time is allowed for sparsity or small schools. Eighty percent of allowable costs of transportation of eligible students is reimbursed by the state. State aid per pupil increases are limited to 25% of the difference between the aid calculation and the previous year's aid. A 1975 court case challenging unequal property assessments was pending in Missouri as of June 1980.

Nebraska's equalization approach is a foundation program that provides $17.50 per pupil in ADM in kindergarten, $35 per pupil in grades 1-6, $42 in grades 7-8 and $49 per pupil in grades 9-12. Required local effort is 18 mills (based on 35% actual value) for K-6, 8 mills for K-8, 5 mills for 9-12. Approximately 197 districts qualify for equalization aid. Minimum levy requirements are 18 mills (K-6), 8 mills (K-8), and 5 mills (9-12). The measure of local ability to support schools includes property valuations per pupil plus certain accountable receipts, i.e. tuition, state apportionment, insurance premium tax, fines and licenses, and transportation receipts. The Nebraska state aid program compensates for the state determined basic needs of students at various grade levels which are translated in dollars (K = $225, 1-6 = $450, and 7-12 = $550 per ADM). Equalization aid provides the difference between program costs based on assumed needs and the amount of funds raised locally. Additional state aid compensation is provided for gifted pupils, culturally and educationally deprived pupils, and anywhere from 10 to 40% addition in the basic need calculation for each district which has less than four persons per square mile. Districts receive additional weighting of .25 for students who live more than four miles from school. This transportation reimbursement is made only to those districts that qualify for equalization aid. Flat grant incentive aid according to degree level of teaching staff and students attending summer school programs are also available. To date no court case has been filed in Nebraska against its system of school finance.

The four state programs described above differ considerably from one state to the other. The National Center for Education Statistics reported that from 1970 to 1977 Iowa, Kansas and Missouri had all experienced a decrease in their within-state disparities in per-pupil expenditures under their school finance reforms, whereas Nebraska's disparities had increased during that seven-year period. It must be pointed out though that Nebraska had not yet undergone its school finance reform during that period. States in rank order from low to high within-state disparities in 1977 found Iowa to be the third lowest in the nation, Kansas seventeenth, Missouri thirtieth, and Nebraska forty-ninth. Ninety-six percent of Iowa's 449 school districts in 1977 had per-pupil expenditures between $1,200 to $1,799 with a state median expenditure of $1,483. Nebraska on the other hand had its district per-pupil expenditures spread somewhat evenly from under $800 to over $2,600 with a state median of $1,481.

A conclusion drawn from a study done by the National Conference of State Legislatures in 1976 was that to date, "it appears that rural districts characterized by low property wealth and low income have been significantly aided by school finance reforms in the 1970s. Other kinds of rural districts, such as those found in prosperous farming areas in the Midwest, do not seem to have reaped many appreciable benefits through these reforms." It appears as though Iowa and Missouri have

done little to recognize the special funding needs of their smaller rural school districts whereas Kansas and Nebraska have made some attempt in their funding programs to address the unique expenditure problems associated with small size and population sparsity. The two extremes in Region VII are Iowa which has put a great deal of effort into equalizing per-pupil expenditures and property wealth disparities throughout the state and Nebraska which has tried to equalize tax efforts, but has been careful to recognize special funding requirements of its smaller rural districts.

The four states of Region VII are situated in the approximate geographical center of the United States. Long known as the "breadbasket" of America, the states of Iowa, Kansas, Missouri and Nebraska are comprised primarily of small rural communities which serve as trade centers for the neighboring farms and ranches. Within Region VII, the small rural school is as much a part of the tradition and heritage as the land itself. Region VII's rural population (all farms, open countryside and places of less than 2,500 residents, both within and outside of SMSA's) is considerably above the national average, thirty-five percent as compared to 26.5% nationwide. Of the 2,419 school districts within the region almost one-half 1,289 have a total district enrollment under 300 pupils and 81.9% have an enrollment under 1,000 pupils. In fact, Region VII has over one-fourth (27.7%) of the total school districts in the United States with enrollments of under 300 pupils. While 928 of these 1,189 school districts are in the state of Nebraska, Missouri has 167, Kansas 51 and Iowa 43. In addition, Region VII has 793 (18.9%) of the 4,187 school districts in the United States with total enrollments from 300 to 999 pupils. Nearly all of these smaller enrollment rural districts are located in rural areas with populations of fewer than 2,500 residents in their communities and surrounding open countrysides. Although equalization is a noble cause of school finance reform, the uniqueness of rural schools and rural communities cannot and should not be destroyed in the process.

Johnathan Sher addressed the agony and the equity of financing America's rural schools in a legislator's handbook he prepared for the National Conference of State Legislatures in September 1978 entitled, *Revitalizing Rural Education.* Sher writes that current debates about rural education focus on tax rates, funding formulas and other financial considerations as often as they focus on more purely educational concerns. The emphasis on educational revenues and resources, he says, is the consequence of the clash among three major trends in education: (1) The expansion of both the range of services that schools are expected to provide and the constituencies they are to serve. (2) The trend toward retrenchment. The hallmark of retrenchment being decline—the decline in enrollments, public confidence in schools, and willingness to pay more taxes. There is growing support for the notion that governmental services of all kinds (including education) can, and should, be made more economical and more efficient. (3) The push toward equity in educational finance. The effects of all three of these trends have certainly been felt by rural schools and school districts across the country. Yet, many state legislatures have not responded to the unique financial problems and needs of their state's rural communities. Few statewide studies have been conducted which accurately assess the effects of various school finance reforms on rural schools and districts. The issues that legislatures must deal with according to Sher are sources of revenues, the inherent cost of rural schools, and the distribution of educational revenues.

Ensuring equity for rural schools and districts requires that legislators be sensitive to the unique financial constraints under which these units operate. As Rachel Tompkins noted in "Coping with Sparsity: A Review of Rural School Finance:"

> *The general policy framework for state school finance should be governed by the goals of adequacy, stability, equity, and flexibility. Each child should be provided with adequate resources to learn, regardless of the child's place of residence. The finance system should provide school districts with predictable and stable levels of resources. Equity requires that differences in the level of dollars per pupil among districts should be based on differences in the educational needs of children and not on the accidents of property wealth and income level. Finally, finance plans should allow local districts the flexibility to develop educational programs most suitable to community needs.*

The nine rural school finance alternatives which Sher feels state legislators should consider are as follows:

(1) Assume an increased proportion of total educational costs.

(2) Distribute state aid on the basis of need rather than equal dollars per pupil.

(3) Pay extraordinary energy costs, transportation costs, and capital expenditures with state funds.

(4) Establish state sparsity payments for isolated rural school districts.

(5) Inaugurate a system of differential assessments of property for tax purposes.

(6) Prevent the passage of legislation which mandates or encourages school district reorganization.

(7) Enact legislation which requires new state mandates for education to be accompanied by the state funds necessary to implement them.

(8) Require the state education agency to distribute federal funds it controls in an equitable manner.

(9) Establish a system of school-site budgeting.

Looking at revenue receipts of public elementary and secondary schools, by source, the National Center for Education Statistics reported that in 1978 the federal government contributed 8.1%, state governments contributed 44.1%, and local governments contributed 47.8% to the cost of education nationwide. The National Education Association Research Memo for 1979 gave the following 1978-79 ranking of states for estimated revenue receipts from federal, state, and local governments in Region VII.

	Federal	*State*	*Local*
IOWA	5.8%	38.9%	55.3%
KANSAS	12.2%	46.7%	41.1%
MISSOURI	10.8%	36.2%	53.2%
NEBRASKA	6.9%	16.8%	76.3%

This information shows that the state of Kansas is least dependent on local property tax support for education, whereas the state of Nebraska is the most dependent on local support. Kansas and Missouri receive the greatest amounts of federal aid to education with Kan-

sas receiving over twice the percentage amount that Iowa receives. The information also indicates that in Region VII, except in Kansas, there remains a heavy reliance on local effort to support the total state cost of public elementary and secondary education. Although unable to document this claim, because data collection procedures prevent one from doing so, a critical analysis of rural school funding sources in Region VII would indicate that most small districts (especially those with enrollments below 300) have a much greater dependency on local support than the state average figures would lead us to believe. This claim is based on the fact that a large percentage of rural school districts in Iowa, Kansas, Missouri and Nebraska tend to have higher than state average property valuations and lower than average pupil enrollments. A combination that works against most rural schools is state equalization formulas. Particularly, in those states that have made a strong effort to equalize statewide expenditures, district wealth and tax effort.

It is a responsibility of rural school administrators to point out to state legislators why rural and small school districts face major problems in school finance. It is also important that they be able to explain where changes are necessary in state school finance laws so that the unique funding needs of rural schools can be met. Reasons why rural schools are facing major problems in school finance today are:

(1) School finance reforms have generally failed to address the specific needs of rural and small schools. Natural conditions associated with small size, population sparsity, rural isolation, and rural diversity are often ignored or inappropriately addressed.

(2) There has been a failure on the part of researchers to recognize small school differences in their data collection, classification and analysis which has perpetuated the problems in rural education finance. Research results and comparisons are often misused for the purposes of developing new educational policy and for interpreting old policies.

(3) State governments have tried to develop simple answers to the complex problems of school finance. The fact that providing services in rural communities is generally more costly than in the cities is a fact of ruralism that government efficiency experts do not like to accept. The fact that smaller rural school districts will have different spending patterns from those of larger urban school districts is yet another fact that is poorly accepted.

State school finance laws, if they are to meet the needs of both rural and urban communities, must be flexible enough to allow school districts to develop and support quality educational programs best suited to their local situations. The laws must recognize that differences do exist between small schools and large schools, rural schools and urban schools. The laws must allow schools to build on their strengths and give them the incentive to correct their weaknesses. Rural communities have traditionally had a strong sense of ownership and control over their schools. The positive relationship between rural schools and communities must be preserved, as well as nurtured. The importance of schools to small towns must be recognized as a critical component in the future development of a strong and viable rural America. The political battles between rural versus urban constituencies must be laid to rest in a bipartisan effort to develop school finance laws that meet the educational needs of all children, regardless of their place of residence. America needs the diversification of a healthy urban and rural society. One which provides an overall educational system that prepares people for a smooth transition of mobility from one area to the other. The American dream of "freedom of choice" must remain foremost in the minds of people who are responsible for developing and implementing school finance laws. This freedom of choice carries with it the right, as well as the responsibility, of government to provide the type of educational systems that best fit local community needs and circumstances. Higher levels of government should not impose unnecessary pressure on local communities that force them to accept a system of education that is contrary to their beliefs and one that is not necessarily in the best interest of their state and the nation.

The problem of rural school finance must be solved at the state and local levels of government. The role of the federal government in rural school finance should be to respond to special needs and problems of America's rural schools without diminishing the responsibility for education which is reserved to the state and local school systems. The federal government is in a position to provide networks for communication, technical assistance, research information and financial support for programs that will supplement the basic programs in rural education. The federal government has a responsibility to ensure that small and rural schools have equal opportunities to successfully compete for federal funds and that rural (set asides) are available in every state so that rural school children are guaranteed their fair share of the federal dollars available to education.

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Vocational Education in a Rural Setting

Jean Thompson Hanson

As current president-elect of the American Vocational Association, and as a four-year member of the Board of Directors of the AVA, I have had the opportunity to visit vocational education programs throughout the United States. Since my work has been primarily in a rural setting, this has been my special interest. My comments are based upon my observations and study of other states, my nine years of experience as a vocational center director in one of the most sparsely populated areas of Minnesota, and particularly upon my experiences in expanding our vocational center from three to thirteen school districts as well as increasing the enrollment from 79 students to 1,536.

Within the parameters of my work, we operate vocational education programs at the secondary and adult level, both within local districts and at central locations including simulations and cooperative training arrangements.

During the last ten years, we have seen many innovations in education. These innovations have been primarily structural. They have included modular scheduling, the quarter system, class periods of uneven lengths, ungraded classrooms, open classrooms and structures where teachers know individual students well and serve as advisors to small groups of students. This seems to be the solution that urban schools are working toward, but it is what small rural schools have done for decades. This direction in education was born out by the Carnegie Commission Report when they pointed to the need for smaller units for more effective education.

Rural populations are usually classified as groups which have historically experienced lower achievement and attainment. The poor, ethnic and racial minorities, and women who lack specialized skills, are grouped together as disadvantaged largely by their geographical area and lack of opportunities. As with other minorities, it could be documented that substantial numbers of rural Americans suffer from problems of opportunity, achievement, services, attainment and stereotyping if they are to be contrasted to comparable urban groups.

There is a sharply differing economic and occupational structure that is often associated with the place of residence. Usually the rural economy centers around agricultural production and services while the urban economy is more diversified. The rural occupational structure may be less differentiated than the urban structure. This could have negative implications for rural youth as they compete for available jobs. For those who remain in the rural locale, there will be fewer types of jobs available. Those who have migrated to the city seeking jobs may have contributed to the growth of urban ghettos and slums. Rural youth have generally perceived that the urban area has a more favorable job market even though the individual may be learning to live within a new environment while competing for jobs. The job problems may well be compounded by limited high school educational offerings as well as limited counseling.

Many individuals find it difficult to draw attention to the educational problems of rural areas because of the very evident crisis in large cities particularly in the area of youth employment. By its very nature, rural population is dispersed over a large area with few people in any one locale, so problems can be somewhat invisible. This makes it nearly impossible for one to easily experience the full impact of rural poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, unemployment and lack of educational opportunity as dramatically as that produced by a visit to an urban ghetto. I would contend that problems of rural America, particularly those in the educational area, are of large magnitude and widespread.

The majority of rural areas are suffering from problems of declining enrollment. As such, it is becoming more difficult to:

1. Maintain courses and programs
2. Maintain balanced staff
3. Expand programs to meet needs
4. Maintain community support
5. Provide transportation and facilities
6. Comply with mandates (e.g. Public Law 94-482)

Yet, in a survey of students in west-central Minnesota, an overwhelming majority (96%) of the students stated that they would like to learn more about different occupations. This seems to point to a need for both vocational course work and vocational counseling so that students can have the opportunity to learn more about the various aspects of different occupations that do not exist in their community. Again, over 77% stated that they would be willing to travel to other schools to take courses. More than 50% stated that they would give up other types of courses or extra curricular activities to take high school vocational courses and 60% of the students felt that high school should place more emphasis on preparing students for education in general.

In a similar survey of parents, 50% said that the variety of secondary vocational courses for their students was inadequate and felt that high school budgets should be reallocated to spend more on vocational courses. Parents favored encouraging more students to enroll in vocational courses. They endorsed a philosophy of training students in broad general basic occupational areas that would be helpful in a variety of occupations rather than specific job training for immediate employment.

In a companion community survey, more than 80% of the general community said that the school should encourage more students to enroll in vocational courses, while over 50% of the survey favored a reallocation of dollars for vocational education courses.

This data and other similar research indicates that even though enrollments are declining and we hear a national hue and cry for a return to basic skills, vocational education for a job is viewed as a basic skill. The student's desire for vocational education is documented as being very great and born out by student enrollment figures. Many rural schools find it very difficult to provide adequate vocational offerings both to train students and to

give them exposure to opportunities available in the working world because of inadequate finances and enrollment.

If secondary vocational education was mentioned to someone 20, or even 10 years ago, he or she may have thought of a classroom tucked into the basement of a high school with a little shingle above the door that read: "MANUAL ARTS" or a consumer homemaking program or a vocational agriculture program ... and that memory wouldn't have been very far from the mark.

But today, vocational programs for high school students are offered in a wide range of areas: from marine and air transportation to public utilities and from health to fine arts.

The origin of government-sponsored secondary vocational education can be traced to federal legislation passed in 1917 which sent federal dollars to the states for agricultural, trade and industrial and home economics education. The emphasis was still in these areas in 1963 when President Lyndon Johnson signed the Vocational Education Act. This act vastly expanded the range of programs and sent additional money to the states. State legislatures also stepped up their appropriations for vocational education at this time; 1968 amendments to the 1963 Act further expanded vocational programs and funding. There was further emphasis with the 1976 amendments and the expected reauthorization legislation may involve some change in direction.

Even with the additional government support, it was difficult for single school districts to offer a much broader range of programs. This was particularly true of rural areas where resources were very limited. This need formed the basis of area vocational schools, cooperative vocational centers or paired school arrangements. In some states, there is a regional state system, in some a mandated county system, and in others an optional system whereby schools may work together. In this way, they are able to better utilize their combined resources and serve a larger number of students in these courses which require adequate laboratories and equipment, job training stations, and instructors with special skills.

Funding for vocational education may come from sources including school district taxes, state foundation aid, and vocational categorical aid. Courses offered usually last one or two years, for 1-3 hours per day and seniors are given first preference in enrolling.

The goals for secondary vocational education are usually:

1. To help students explore occupational fields in depth
2. To prepare students for entry into full-time or part-time employment generally at the semi-skilled level
3. To prepare students to succeed more quickly in related post-secondary occupational programs at a college or technical institute.

Generally the governance of secondary vocational education can be roughly described as:

1. Comprehensive High Schools—operate secondary programs including vocational and non-vocational subjects
2. Vocational High Schools—offer a full-time program of study in vocational and non-vocational subjects
3. Area Vocational Technical Centers—serve high school students on a shared-time basis as a part of their regular high school program and usually cover a regional area

Vocational education today is more than the manual arts, agriculture or home economics of 1917. Last year, approximately 10.2 million high school students took some form of vocational education.

It is evident that the rural student needs equal access to the vocational programming that is available to students in more populous areas. This can help to break patterns of poverty and open the vision of students who might otherwise view their world from a limited perspective. The national need for technically skilled workers shows that opportunities can be available but training is needed as well as initiative both in attracting industry to rural areas and selecting appropriate training areas through adequate vocational counseling which offers good employment opportunities.

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Development of Rural Cooperatives

Jean Thompson Hanson

There are many types of high school cooperative vocational programs in the United States. The term cooperative should not be confused with cooperative education where students have on-the-job experience, but should instead be thought of as cooperative ventures between two or more school districts to provide vocational and other selected programming for students.

Some states are organized on a county-by-county system where each county has built an area vocational center which serves high school students and some part-time adult students, perhaps from CETA programs. Others have set up cooperative centers by local initiative with school districts choosing to work together in self-selected groupings.

In the state of Minnesota a cooperative center, formerly titled vocational center, is a joint effort among neighboring school districts to provide secondary vocational education and other K-12 and adult education by option of that center board. The center receives approval from the State Board of Education and is designed to serve individuals of the member districts that compose the center. Students choose vocational programs or other elective programs on the basis of individual selection and vocational counseling with students closest to leaving high school served first.

A cooperative center is intended to strengthen and extend existing programs and to provide an opportunity to expand offerings to include additional vocational preparation. A student enrolls at their home district and participates in the program administered by the independent district and the cooperative center. Students, staff or equipment can be transported based upon the decisions by the governing board. The most common arrangement is that students are transported for up to one half hour (25 miles) daily to a central location. This is because the costs of equipping up-to-date laboratories are great and therefore laboratories need to be centralized. Also, many small schools do not have enough students to make up a class of feasible size. The student is granted high school credit for education obtained through the center by their home school district.

The cooperative centers are different from post-secondary vocational technical institutes which gear their programs to post-secondary students with the objective being employment upon graduation. At the high school level, importance is placed upon introducing students to a variety of occupations, providing career exploration, and providing basic skills for employment.

A cooperative center is different from the comprehensive high school in that it represents a sharing between two or more districts for offering vocational programs. Comprehensive high schools may still offer lead-in courses and vocationally oriented and vocationally reimbursed courses particularly in the area of home economics, business education or agriculture. Adult vocational education may also be offered. The adult courses may be long-term such as Adult Farm Management or Small Business Management or short-term upgrading.

The goals and objectives of a vocational cooperative center may vary somewhat due to possible differences in advisory committees, administration, types of program offering, socio-economic characteristics of the communities being served and other differences. Generally, the objectives of secondary vocational programs are defined as follows:

a. To explore occupations in depth,
b. To prepare for entry into full-time or part-time employment, and
c. To prepare to succeed more quickly in a related post-secondary occupational program at a college or technical institute.

Local school districts' objectives may include the sharing of dollars and students to make a larger variety of secondary vocational programs and other types of education available to students. These objectives also serve as a catalyst to elementary and junior high school career exploration programs.

Articulation of competencies gained at the secondary level is playing an increasingly important role as students move from secondary to post-secondary education and utilize a competency-based curriculum.

Most secondary vocational centers, or area schools as they may be called in some parts of the country, meet for two or three hours a day, providing the academic component for students. Methods of job training used in rural areas will usually be the simulated method where students simulate actual job situations in classrooms or laboratories. If there is a sufficient population base the cooperative method, where students receive on-the-job training, may be used. Frequently shadowing experiences where students have some on-the-job experience in an unpaid situation work well in rural areas. The type of program planning is very often determined by the local advisory committees.

Programs are selected on the basis of surveys of community members, employers, students, parents, as well as future job trends. The steering committee from the interested schools works together with the administrators in program selection, placement of programs, and publicity for the center. A formal agreement is usually required. This may take the form of development of an intermediate district, a special local school district, a joint agreement under a joint powers act, or another type of legislation that has been passed at the state level.

The superintendents from the cooperating districts or governing board will select a vocational administrator to work with formulation of the center. The certification of this individual varies from state to state, but usually requires a vocational education background supported by educational administration and vocational administration courses.

There have been many parallels to the cooperatives that we are dealing with in education, whether they are large or small. The dramatic success stories of the REA's and the Tennessee Valley Authority are very well known. The small successes of cooperative ventures, whether in education, in businesses or between people, could also be well documented. As a vocational director who has worked extensively with cooperative education, I would term our Minnesota Cooperative Centers as successful.

History of the Pine to Prairie Cooperative Center

In 1968, a new concept called vocational centers (now referred to as cooperative centers) was put to the test in Minnesota in a pilot program. Under this program, a group of school districts were allowed to voluntarily band together to provide secondary vocational education. Red Lake Falls, Oklee, Mentor, Erskine and Plummer, in northern Minnesota, formed in 1969, the third center in the state. It is called the East Polk-Red Lake County Vocational Center. The success of this effort is shown in the growth of cooperative centers in Minnesota and in the growth of this center. From the two pilot programs in Minnesota in 1968, the number of centers has grown to 61 in 1980. The East Polk-Red Lake County Center joined with three schools in 1972 and has grown to thirteen school districts with vocational programs located in five shared sites in 1980.

The first center programs included personal service occupations, auto mechanics and model office occupations. These courses were followed by programs in building trades, cooperative sharing of vocational consumer homemaking, and programs in education and child care careers courses. The next areas added included occupational foods and vocational special needs followed by vocational work experience and cooperative business and office education. All of these courses were enhanced by local district lead-in courses which were vocationally reimbursed.

In the fall of 1976, the center school district began meeting with additional school districts, eventually leading to ten districts in the spring of 1978. The center name was changed to the Pine to Prairie Cooperative Center. As of spring 1980, total enrollments for the ten schools in two-hour classes totaled 437, one-hour classes totaled 616 and one hour for one semester classes totaled 1,094. This amounts to approximately 1.67 vocational courses per student. Fifty-one staff members received some vocational funding.

In February of 1980, three additional school districts joined the cooperative center bringing the total to thirteen, the largest outstate cooperative in Minnesota. During the first semesters of 1980, over 1,500 students were taking 2,062 vocational courses. Five hundred and eighteen students were served by special needs support services, placement services, work experience and vocational technical tutors. There were 849 disadvantaged students and 114 handicapped students which included 88 minority students, 85 being Native American. There are currently 75 certified vocational staff members.

Pine to Prairie Cooperative Center No. 985 Philosophy

The philosophy of the Pine to Prairie Cooperative Center is based on the belief that all people, regardless of their interests, deserve an equal opportunity to pursue a career.

Provision of a usable education is a public responsibility in a society which places great value upon the optimum development of each individual and depends on the maximum contribution of each citizen to maintain and extend our free system of government.

The primary objectives of the instructional program at the Center are to assist students with basic skills in preparing for immediate employment, to explore vocational-technical career classes and to prepare for post-secondary training in occupations requiring varying levels of education. The Center program includes selecting and organizing secondary learning experiences which prepare the learner for satisfying and effective participation in family, job and community life. The preparation involves development in specific skills and knowledge necessary for successful entry into an occupational field and for acquiring a foundation for subsequent additional training.

The task of the Center is to provide a proper environment, staff, equipment and facilities in which students can acquire experience, knowledge, skills, ideals, and attitudes, necessary for a complete and productive life in a democratic society.

Objectives

1. To provide meaningful knowledge—that which can be put to productive use.
2. To provide an atmosphere in which students can explore and evaluate their interests, capabilities and aptitudes for a specific career.
3. To provide the student with a new opportunity for educational success as well as a sense of relativity to education in general.
4. To broaden the scope of secondary education in the schools participating in the Center program by serving as an extension of occupational classrooms for each member school.
5. To establish and enlarge the potential of the individual student through education in knowledge, skills and attitudes.
6. To equip the student with the ability to think creatively and engage in practical occupational experiences to further develop an interest in the welfare of mankind.
7. To provide students with the background necessary to enter vocational-technical programs at an advanced level.
8. To provide specific trade and occupational training accompanied by desirable personal attitudes and work habits.

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Career Development in Rural Education

Roger A. Baskerville

On June 19, 1978, the Lohrville Community Schools of Lohrville, Iowa, received the following correspondence from 6th District Congressman, Berkley Bedell:

> *Dear Dr. Baskerville,*
> *I am happy to tell you that I received the enclosed grant notification from the Office of Education, HEW. The grant . . . is given to demonstrate the most effective methods and techniques in career education.*
> *With best wishes for continued success, I remain,*
> *Sincerely yours,*
> *BERKLEY BEDELL*
> *Member of Congress*

In 1979-80, we completed the second year of operation for the Lohrville Career Education Model (LCEM) and the *Toward Community Growth* project. The Model was originally developed for rural Iowa high schools in order that they might experience career opportunities in their local areas. Iowa's recent demographic history had strongly indicated that young adults were leaving the rural areas once their kindergarten through twelfth grade (K-12) education had been completed. There was even evidence available which indicated that Iowa's population growth as a whole was lagging behind that of other middle-western states in the recently finished decade of the '70s. The LCEM, therefore, became a systematic attempt at exploring careers in Iowa, and at inducing Iowa's youth to seek careers closer to home following graduation from high school or the completing of additional post-secondary education/training. It was assumed that this would benefit not only the rural areas of this predominantly rural state, but the so-called 'urban' population centers as well.

The experimental program model included a course syllabus to be taught in two 2-week sessions during the fall and spring semesters. It consisted of the following seven units: 1) Specific Local Emphases; 2) "Rural Living and Rural Lifestyles: A Psychological Approach;" 3) "Rural Economy and Rural Finance;" 4) "Rural: A Gestalt Approach;" 5) "Individual Attitudes and Personalities in a Rural Community;" 6) "Careers: City vs. Rural;" and, 7) "The Generation Gap." Each of the seven units was taught in accordance with specific attitudinal questions asked in the pretest attitudinal survey. (The pretest and posttest surveys utilized the same instrument.) The pretest survey included 59 questions from which respondents were asked to provide an attitudinal response of varying degrees: Strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree. The attitudinal survey provided 29 general career education statements which called for an attitudinal response; the remaining 30 statements were directly connected with the objectives to be taught in the seven units of the previously cited syllabus. In other words, students in the experimental group were taught with specific posttest attitudinal responses in mind.

Sandwiched in between each semester's two-week class sessions was a two-week career education work session experience in the local K-12 school district or in contiguous districts. Senior students were placed with district resource personnel in accordance with the results obtained from the Kuder Occupational Interest Survey and the self-identified rank ordering of occupational interests as provided by individual students in the Lohrville experimental group. Both the Kuder OIS and the self-identified rank ordering of career work preferences, as provided by students, were analyzed for similarities in occupational interests. When similar or corresponding work interests were found in both the Kuder and the self-identified list, students were counseled as to the availability of the preferred work in the immediate area. Local resource personnel were then contacted and asked if they could provide a two-week, daily career education experience for the student or students whose Kuder OIS results and self-identified list of preferred occupational interests corresponded to that of the Lohrville School District's resource individual(s). All Lohrville senior students in the *Toward Community Growth* experimental group were placed with resource personnel in either the local K-12 school district or contiguous districts. Each of the students was given a career education experience with a person or persons whose work corresponded to the students' tested and self-identified occupational interests. One major premise of the *Toward Community Growth* project was that students could be taught positive attitudes about living and working in rural areas.

Since 1978 Lohrville senior students have been required to take a class in 'rural' in conjunction with their local career education experiences. The class was based on the assumption that attitudes can be taught and learned. Developments in recent years have shown that minority group studies, Native American and Afro-American to cite two, have produced positive attitudes within these specific minority groups concerning heritage, customs and the inherent values within their respective minority lifestyles. (This assumption has been gathered from empiricized data and can be defended, logically, through observation and happenings of the 1960s and 1970s.)

By comparison, rural Iowans and rural Americans are also a minority. There are fewer inhabitants in rural areas than exist in suburban, urban and metropolitan regions. For decades rural students have been taught with and by urban education models. Rural students were told, consciously or unconsciously, that if they were intelligent, capable individuals they should 'get out' of the rural regions and into the cities where they could have a bright future and 'amount to something.' This, coupled with fewer agricultural and agri-business opportunities due to the increasing size of 'family farms,' produced an invaluable 'brain drain' of great magnitude and proportions in rural areas.

It was a major contention of this study that these attitudes of urban, city-based pseudo superiority could be reversed with an intense, attitudinal program designed specifically for rural students. The state-mandated inception of career education programs into all K-12 systems could and should provide a re-emergence of positive feeling and attitudes toward rural lifestyles, rural occupations, and a future career in a rural area. *Toward*

Community Growth emphasized the positive attributes of 'rural' as a way of life, and hopefully made one small dent in the countless years rural students have been propagandized with the benefits of an urban lifestyle. There is still much to be accomplished, however, if 'rural choices' are to be brought up to the level of 'urban choices' in rural Iowa/America. This dream also includes the ruralization of urban students in the not too distant future if true educational opportunity is to exist throughout Iowa's K-12 school systems. Urban students must also be shown the benefits of a small school, small community way of life. Needless to say, this all too important aspect of socialization and community interaction is missing from the multi-faceted curricula of urban districts. True equality of educational opportunity involves much more than counting the number of programs offered districtwide; it also becomes a very important aspect of individuality; the freedom of choice to determine future lifestyles, and the exposure to career alternatives, rural as well as urban. Rural students have been continuously exposed to urban models and lifestyles for years. It now becomes imperative that urban students receive the same educational opportunity with rural-based models of career education and future agrarian-based occupational lifestyles.

The reversal of urban attitudes concerning rural schools and rural communities is a difficult task. Major mediums of news conveyance and editorialization are more often than not based in heavily populated, urban areas. It becomes easier for urban sources to relay the faults of rural areas since urbanites have the major media voice at their disposal. Rural people, inherently, do not have the same major voice of news/opinion/editorialization. Who, then, has the upper hand in formulating attitudes among all people, both rural and urban? People believe what they read; they believe what they hear. If rural citizens have lived with the constant media reminder that small is bad, inefficient, uneconomical, resource poor, and, through inference, incomparable to urban-based models of all shapes and sizes, including education, then rural people, through no fault of their own, will start to believe what they read; and what they hear. Magnify and multiply urban-produced and induced attitudinal 'mindsets' of several decades and generations, and those who are self-professed proponents of 'rural' as a way of credible, viable, and often-times superior lifestyles, do indeed face a monumental task in reversing well-established, urban-based attitudes.

June 19, 1978, did mark the beginning of a new era for the Lohrville Community School District. This rural, K-12 educational system has gained not only national recognition for an academic innovation, but more importantly, the opportunity to produce a program of local, state and national significance for *all* rural school districts was now a distinct possibility. That's all Lohrville wanted; an opportunity. An opportunity to pragmatically demonstrate to the state legislature that Iowa is rural-rooted in her rich heritage; that the motto, "Iowa—A Place to Grow," is not just intended for the so-called urban-based population centers within the state. An opportunity to prove to Iowa lawmakers that rural growth and rural community rejuvenation are possible with legislative encouragement; not only financially, but attitudinally as well. The opportunity to demonstrate that rural citizens, possessors of a culture and educational philosophy inherent in agrarian-based peoples, are indeed intelligent human beings, worthy of being listened to, and believed, in the greatest agricultural state in the nation. And, of equal importance, the opportunity to 'prove' statistically and empirically to the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, (DPI), that rural schools within rural communities are not merely so many pawns to be moved, merged, eliminated, vacuumized, or reorganized at the whim and fancy of a Des Moines-based education power structure. Suffice it to say, as microscopic as they might seem, those opportunities are not affordable. They exist for those school districts and communities who wish to 'work' at survival.

Ironically, the summary for the essence and intended nature of the *Toward Community Growth* study was found in the February 11, 1979, edition of the *Des Moines Sunday Register.* For his *Iowa Boy* column, *Register* Staff Writer Chuck Offenburger visited Aurelia, a northwest Iowa community of 1,065 proud citizens, to interview Doug Lockin, "an extraordinary senior" at the local high school. This community-proclaimed, "All American Boy," unknowingly but articulately documented the need for a rural career education model in his following statement,

> *. . . I've grown up in this town. I have very strong feelings for Aurelia. I always said that I'd never leave here, but I see now I have to, at least to get an education. After that, if there's a good chance for me to come back here, set up some kind of business and live, I probably will.*

Wouldn't it be nice if attitudes such as the one exhibited by Doug Lockin could not only be encouraged, but given definite direction and purpose within the parameters of a rural career education model designed specifically for a rural state? Many, many youthful Iowans want to "come back here, set up some kind of business and live." *Toward Community Growth* and "Lessons in 'Rural' " are one step in the direction of fulfilling that attitudinal desire, and in lending credibility to the State Motto, *Iowa—A Place to Grow.*

Roger Baskerville is Superintendent of Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, Iowa.

The Plight of Minorities in the Rural School

Willie Epps

I've noticed that there are very few minorities at this particular conference and it makes me wonder if there are any minority teachers in the rural schools. But I know there are for I attended a rural school, so you are looking at a product of rural education.

Rural education has been defined as non-metropolitan and non-urban, but at the same time there are some forces that are trying to exert many urban models, urban concepts and techniques on the rural school. We need to take another look at the uniqueness of urban schools. How can we relate this particular heritage of 'ruralness' to the particular cultures and values of students attending those particular schools?

George Bernard Shaw said, "The worst thing for our fellow creatures is not to hate them, but to be indifferent to them." When we talk about the plight of minorities in rural education, we are talking about several groups, Blacks, Hispanic, Indian, Mexican American, and even females, in some cases. Each group has their own particular values, culture, their own concept and heritage. All of these groups look at one institution to serve as a neutralizer in trying to promote those values. The institution is the school. The school is the only institution which can help develop and mold the skills of all students.

In white urban, rural or metropolitan communities, there are three types of students attending school. One is the school-oriented pupil. All students can learn. They may use different techniques, but all students can learn. Brunner has proven this. This particular student is one who conforms, one who is motivated by parents and community to continue to further their education. They see education as their way out of their particular situation. We do not have problems with these students. They are already motivated.

The non-oriented pupil needs motivation. They need specialized and self instruction. Their parents probably have few years of schooling and as a result receive very little motivation at home, in terms of schooling.

There are anti-school oriented pupils. They often cause behavior problems in class. They usually come from low income families and comprise a large number of students in the rural areas.

One big problem of rural schools is student non-enrollment. Often times students simply do not enroll in school and if they do, the drop-out rate is high. There is also the need of reducing absenteeism. When I went to school, you could always tell the rural kids from the city kids because on sunny days you could always find a seat, on rainy days it was hard. We need to come up with ways to help these students. What I'm really talking about is individualized instruction, so those students can catch up either in the classroom or on their own.

Another problem of rural schools is obtaining qualified teachers and administrators. There tends to be a high turn over in jobs. Teachers, when they find such jobs, go to urban areas. In terms of commitment as teachers, Kenneth Clark talks about it from an urban perspective. Even teachers who are products of ghetto areas in large cities, once they are educated, make the decision not to return. Many times rural teachers say, "This is my way out of the rural community."

There is a small number of schools offering training in rural education. Most teachers are educated by a rural and urban model. I am happy to see that Kansas State University is involved in preparing educators to work in rural communities.

Another common problem in rural schools is producing specialized services. One of the chief reasons we look at this is PL 94-142, the law saying we must provide services for all handicapped students. Many times in a rural school it is very difficult to provide such services for the handicapped because of the high cost. Now we have schools working together on cooperative programs; there are three or more schools which will come together and provide these services. Often times one does not find programs in the rural areas for the gifted or the talented. The cost of the program and the sparseness of students make it impossible to offer such specialized programs.

Another problem is securing operating funds. It is hard to entice and insist that bond issues be passed in rural communities. The research shows there are fewer bonds being passed in rural areas than in urban areas. This usually means the mill levy will increase. Also, on the federal level, rural schools are the last schools to get money to finance programs.

When we talk about the poor of rural communities, we mean the sharecrop farmers, immigrant or seasonal workers. Their homes are not clean or safe and are overcrowded. There is an effort by HUD to provide the necessary housing in the rural community. The overcrowded living conditions does affect students. A teacher tells them to take school work home, and he has to go home and fight for a place to sleep. Teachers must be sensitive to the needs of students.

When we speak of inadequate income we are talking about families living off less than two thousand dollars a year. It is hard to see how these people exist. Lack of transportation and health services are also problems in the rural communities. There are not many trained doctors in rural areas. Often times such people are 'shared' between two or three communities.

In 1970 there were 500,000 adults who had no schooling whatsoever. The Carter Administration does have a policy which encourages the establishment of adult education programs. The problem is getting people to attend them. Less than two million rural adults have less than five years of schooling. In terms of minorities, it is worse. Research shows that 24.1% of all black adults and 30.7% of all hispanic adults in rural areas had dropped out of school by the fifth grade. Today, a survey report shows that 5.3% of rural, school-age children are not enrolled in school at all. We need to do something in the area of recruitment, making sure students get into the first grade.

A complaint concerning teachers in the rural school is they hold low expectations of students. This is a problem found in all of education, teachers simply hold

low expectations of their students. Students usually work up to only what the teacher expects.

Rural teachers tend to use inappropriate instructional materials. Most instructional materials depict an urban style of living. Teachers need to find, and some are out on the market, instructional materials which depict the rural setting.

Teachers need to highlight the contributions minorities and other cultures have made for society and the United States. One way may be having a multi-cultured education program, looking at the contributions of all races and how they work together.

Willie Epps is Associate to the Vice President of Special Programs at Southern Illinois University in Edwardsville, Illinois.

Looking At The Rural School In Rural Education

Everett Edington

I am going to put in a plug, a commercial, for the National Rural Education Association. If you need information about this, please contact me. The association has been going on for years and was a "good old boy's club." We are in a real need for a strong advocate for rural education in this nation. We made some changes in our constitution this year and we dropped our affiliation with NEA and NESA and are going it alone. We will survive for three years, but if we don't do something by then, we deserve to die. There is a real need for a strong voice in rural education, some place where people can look to for in-put. We can send you information, and hope you will help this 'voice' for rural education, rural America.

I am going to look at some things we know from research about the rural schools. Historically, we've always known there are myths in education. One is that rural kids don't do as well as other kids. Even the National Assessment Progress Programs in 1969-1972 found out that they were scoring lower. It has been true. But things are changing. Some of these generalizations are misleading. We should not make generalizations from averages. An average is just half as good as some, half of them are better and half of them are worse. Too often we generalize about large groups of people. There are more similarities between urban and some rural groups than differences. For example, the achievements of the Indian youth in rural areas and the Indian youth in urban areas have been very similar. Also the Black youth and Mexican Americans have similar achievements in urban and rural areas. So we need to be careful about generalizations. We are finding lower levels of achievement in the disadvantaged groups in rural education and programs many times keep them disadvantaged.

The 1979 Rural Assessment showed an improved performance in rural reading and functional literacy and in social studies. Rural nine-year-olds seemed to make the greatest change. Why? Some of the programs are Title I programs and other programs concentrating on the primary and elementary child were beginning to "pay off" in this age group. That's just an assumption, not a fact.

Citizenship performance went down, but the rural youth was always low. However, the rural youth's performance went down much less than the urban youth.

Concerning science, rural students performed higher than others on what we call practical or common sense, while they scored a little lower on the academic exercises. A study in Canada showed rural youth had a higher reading vocabulary and these gains must be interpreted carefully. Again, these are generalizations.

Large amounts of money given to promote change in the rural schools are not very effective. This is one of the worst things people can do; often times it tears the school and the community apart.

Another bad influence is the separation of the Title I programs from the school program. My wife is a Title I teacher and she reports that they must take the students out of the regular class. I would much rather see us incorporate the federal funding programs into the regular school program, rather than separate programs.

Money doesn't involve the teachers, school, staff and community in the planning. Some programs are effective but would be more effective if they were a part of the school program, rather than just added on.

Urban schools have been more successful at rural intervention than rural schools. This "extraness' doesn't cause the havoc as it does in the rural schools, but in both cases, the most important factor is involvement of the local leadership and the community as a resource.

Is there a rural curriculum? Do rural youth go to different areas or do different things than the urban school? Does rural environment make different curriculums necessary? I will try and deal with these questions next.

There is another myth, that is that rural youth leave to go to the city for work. Research shows the young who leave are the ones who go away to school. Those leaving for work come back, usually after a year or two. These people want to stay home and work. This has some implications in working with rural development and other programs.

Curriculums implemented shouldn't change or challenge the values of the community. Teachers and community people need to be involved in the planning. This is essential.

We do find more varied curriculums in urban areas. We don't know if that makes a difference. Rural schools can be aware and give students opportunities with different experiences. Now we are developing at Clearinghouse, two handbooks. One is how the rural social studies teacher can utilize the community in teaching social studies. The other is how the science teacher can use the rural environment in teaching science. The special education law seemed to ignore the rural areas when it was written. It is difficult for rural education to meet requirements here. There is the need for vocational education. This morning Jean Hansen explained how they came together in 13 cooperatives to meet this need.

Staffing is a serious problem in the rural schools. These problems can't be solved until we do something about certification. This includes the utilization of different types of people, even those without college educations.

Another characteristic about rural schools is that rural school teachers are much more accountable than urban teachers. They live in the community where they teach. The successful rural teacher tends to come from communities like the one in which they are teaching. The dissatisfied rural teachers come from urban backgrounds. Hopefully you'll get some teacher from different rural areas, because I think you need new blood.

From the National Studies on Change here are the characteristics of rural schools which affect their willingness to accept change:

1. The multiple functions of the rural school. The community looks upon the school for many more tasks than they do in the urban school. Sports are to entertain the community.
2. The tension between stability and change in rural

communities. People question change and doing things differently. We are finding that the more homogeneous an area is, the more difficult it is to change.

3. The limited economic base ... you may get a thousand dollars per student across the board, but a thousand dollars for a school of two hundred sure doesn't go as far as a thousand dollars in a school of twenty thousand. So the economics of size say: it costs more to educate students in small schools.
4. Rural fears of federal colonialism. If you were a part of the 11 conferences the U.S. Office of Education had last year when they were asking, "What role should the federal government have in rural education?" you would have been surprised by the many answers. Some said, "Just leave us alone." They were states who had cattle, oil and wheat. There is a fear of federal colonialism.
5. The shifting balance of power and authority of teachers, administrators and school boards. The negotiated contract is coming out to rural areas, whereas it has primarily been in urban areas.
6. Citizens' reservations about the professional license of educators. In rural areas you have a resistance about the professional ability of teachers and administrators.
7. The amount of change that has occurred in schools is unimpressive when compared to the amount of financial aid and human resources devoted to change effort. We haven't done a good job utilizing the funds.
8. If change is to become permanent there has to be a change in attitude. To change people's attitude you have to involve them. This is important in the rural school and rural community.

Everett Edington is director of ERIC-CRESS at New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Population Trends in Kansas: 1950-1980 and Beyond

Donald J. Adamchak

During the past 30 years, Kansas experienced population trends similar to those in other west north central states but somewhat different from the United States as a whole. I would like to share with you these changes in Kansas' population over the past 30 years and what is expected to happen in the next 15 years with the hope that the information will benefit educators, administrators, and planners of rural school districts.

But first, demography (or the study of the human population) consists of several processes and properties. Three processes that change a population are fertility, mortality, and migration. Three properties of a population (which are altered via fertility, mortality, and migration) are the size of a population, characteristics or composition of the population, and the distribution of the population in the land area.

Population change comes from balancing three processes—births adding to the population, deaths subtracting from the population, and migration adding to and subtracting from the population. During the last 30 years, the relative importance of the factors has changed, with migration becoming the critical variable in the rate that population changes.

General Trends in the Components of Population Change

Although Kansas' population has increased continuously since 1950, the rate of growth has declined. Between 1950 and 1960 the state's population increased 14.3%. The entire increase resulted from natural increase (more births than deaths) since the state lost 2% of its population to net out-migration. During 1960-1970, the rate of population growth was 3.2%, again as a result of natural increase since 6.1% of the 1960 population was lost by 1970 to net out-migration. Between 1970 and 1975 we see a further decline in growth to 2.9% (see Table 1).

The projections (1980, 1985, 1990, 1995) are based on the demographic processes of 1975, and show an increased rate to 3.9% between 1975 and 1980 and then a decrease to 2.4% for the 1980-90 decade, and only 1.8% between 1990 and 1995.

Table 1
Kansas Population 1950-1995

		% of Change
1950	1,905,299	
		14.3
1960	2,178,611	
		3.2
1970	2,249,071	
		2.9
1975	2,314,479	
		3.9
1980	2,403,600	
		2.4
1985	2,460,900	
		2.4
1990	2,508,900	
		1.8
1995	2,564,100	

Nationally, the North Central regions and the Northeast have been the donor regions the past two decades in population shifts to the "sunbelt" states of the South and Southwest. During the 1960s, the Northeast and North Central regions had population growths of approximately 10% each, compared with 14% in the South and 24% in the West. Continuing from 1970 to 1975, both the South and West increased 8% compared with only 2% by the North Central Region and 1% for the Northeast. Thus, Kansas has been supplying population to other states and regions.

Natural Increase

The combined effect of births and deaths is called natural increase (or decrease). During the last 30 years, the death rate has remained fairly stable, fluctuating slightly around 10 per thousand, while the birth rate has declined dramatically from about 23.5 per thousand in 1950 (peaking at approximately 25 per thousand in 1954) to 15 per thousand in 1979. As a result, the rate of natural increase also has declined and the contribution of natural increase to the growth of the state's population has diminished. Figures 1, 2, and 3 illustrate natural decrease counties (more deaths than births) for 1960, 1970, and 1979. In 1960, only three counties experienced natural population decrease expanding to 33 in 1970, then 16 in 1979.

Several factors may explain the natural decrease. One, of course, is the decline in the birth rate and the total number of births until about 1974. The number of women 15 to 44 years of age (the reproductive ages) has declined, and their fertility rate (the number of births per 1,000 women aged 15-44) also has declined.

The total number of births increased in Kansas in 1974 and in the nation in 1974 as female babies born during the postwar boom entered the childbearing ages. Although women are still having fewer children (about 1.8 each), more women of childbearing age contribute to the increase in births in Kansas (see Figure 4). The increase commencing in 1974 also contributed to fewer Kansas counties decreasing in population between 1970 and 1979.

Another major contributor to natural decrease is a rapid change in the age structure of counties. As agriculture rapidly mechanized in the 1950s and 1960s and farms became larger, fewer people were needed to farm. That created an excess of population in all of Kansas except for its cities. Migration is selective, meaning migrants are primarily young adults and better educated than the rest of the population in their area of origin. In the 1950s, 1960s, and the first half of the 1970s, Kansas experienced age-selective net out-migration. That is, the young left rural Kansas and Kansas in general, creating a situation where the age structure of counties became older and where young adults removed their childbearing potential and future generations. That created natural population decrease in many counties.

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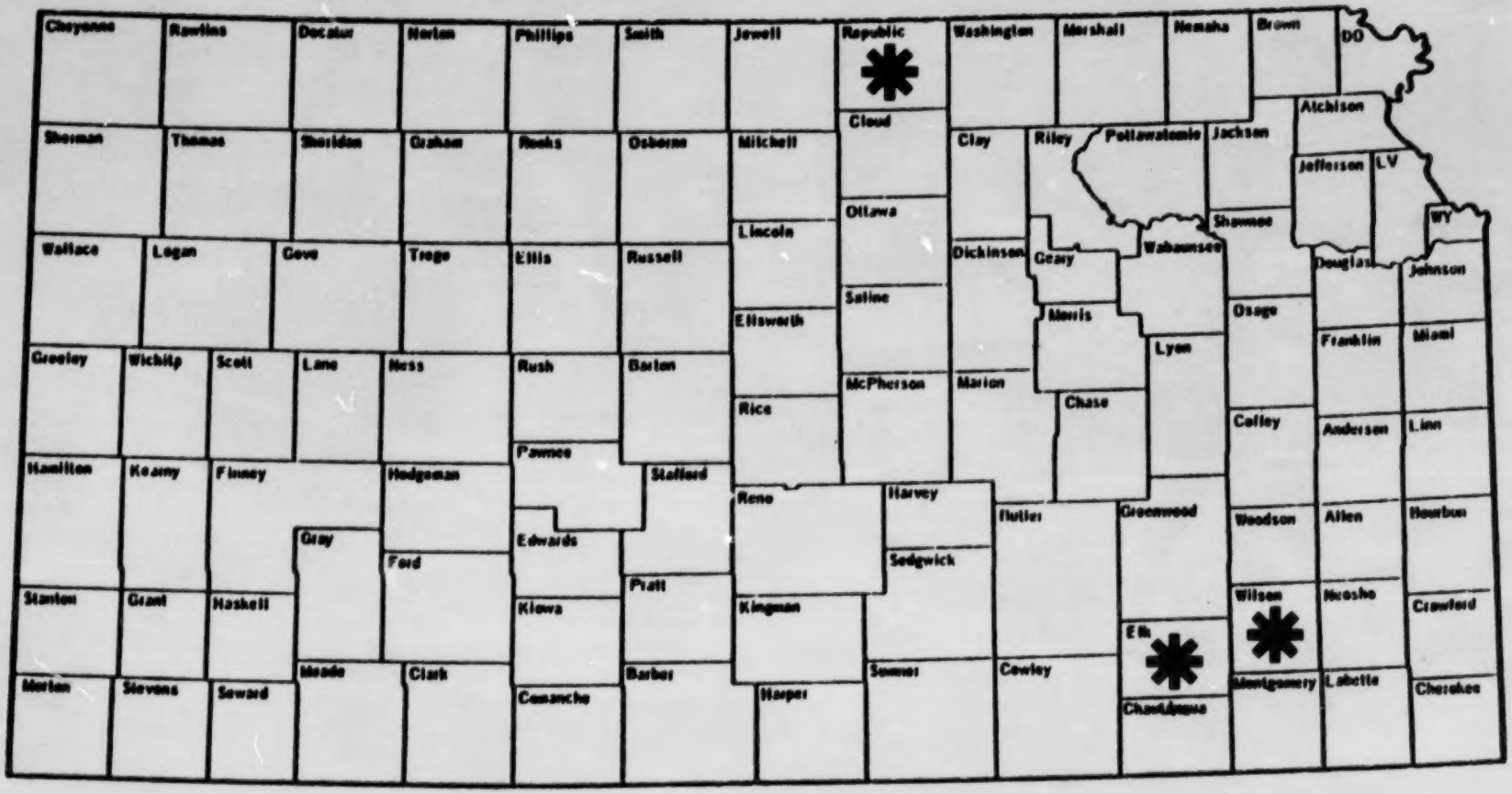
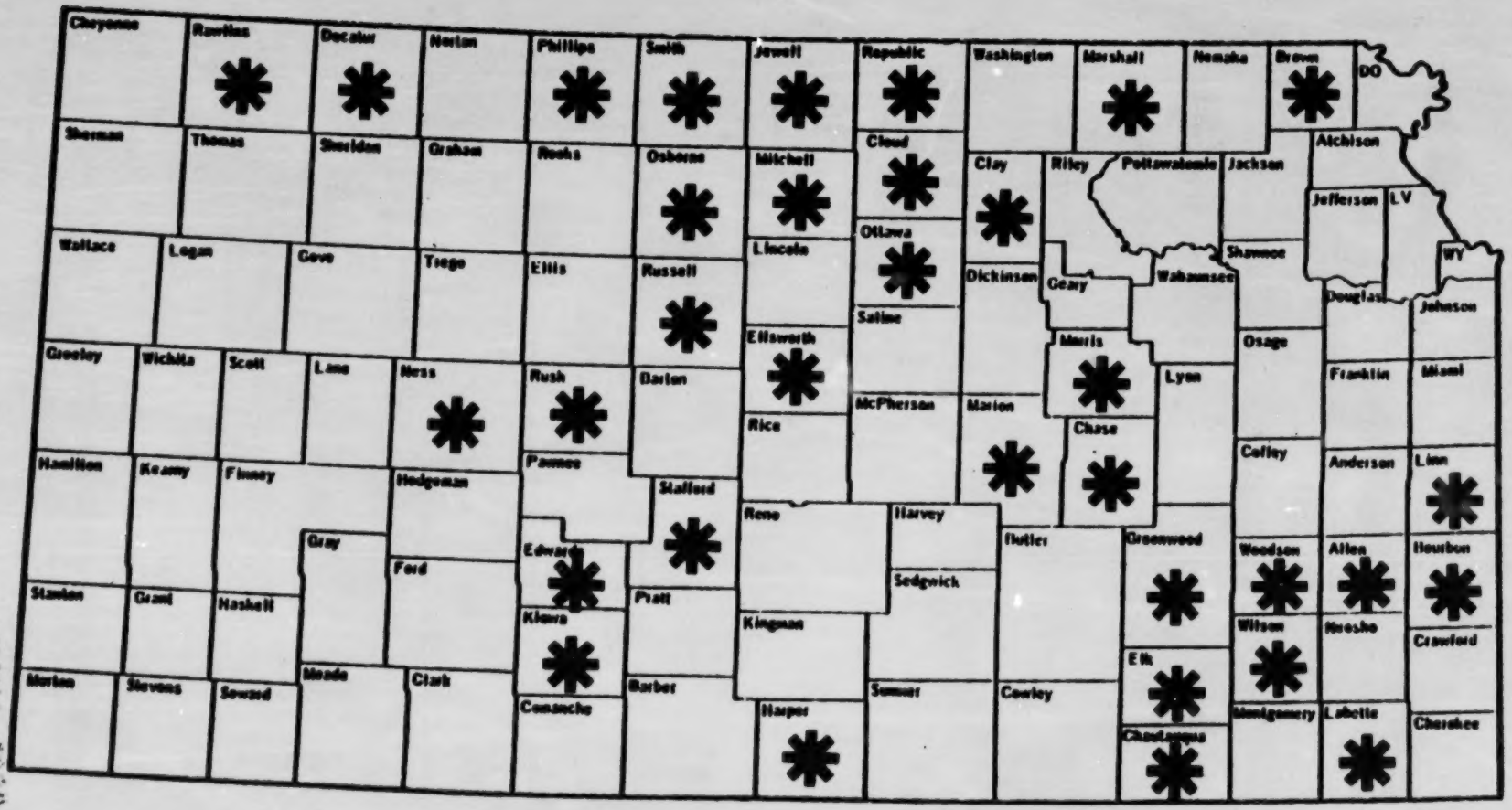
Figure 1: Counties with Natural Decrease, 1960 Calendar Year



* More Deaths than Births = 3 counties

Figure 2: Counties with Natural Decrease, 1970 Calendar Year



More Deaths than Births = 33 counties

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Figure 3: Counties with Natural Decrease, 1979 Calendar Year

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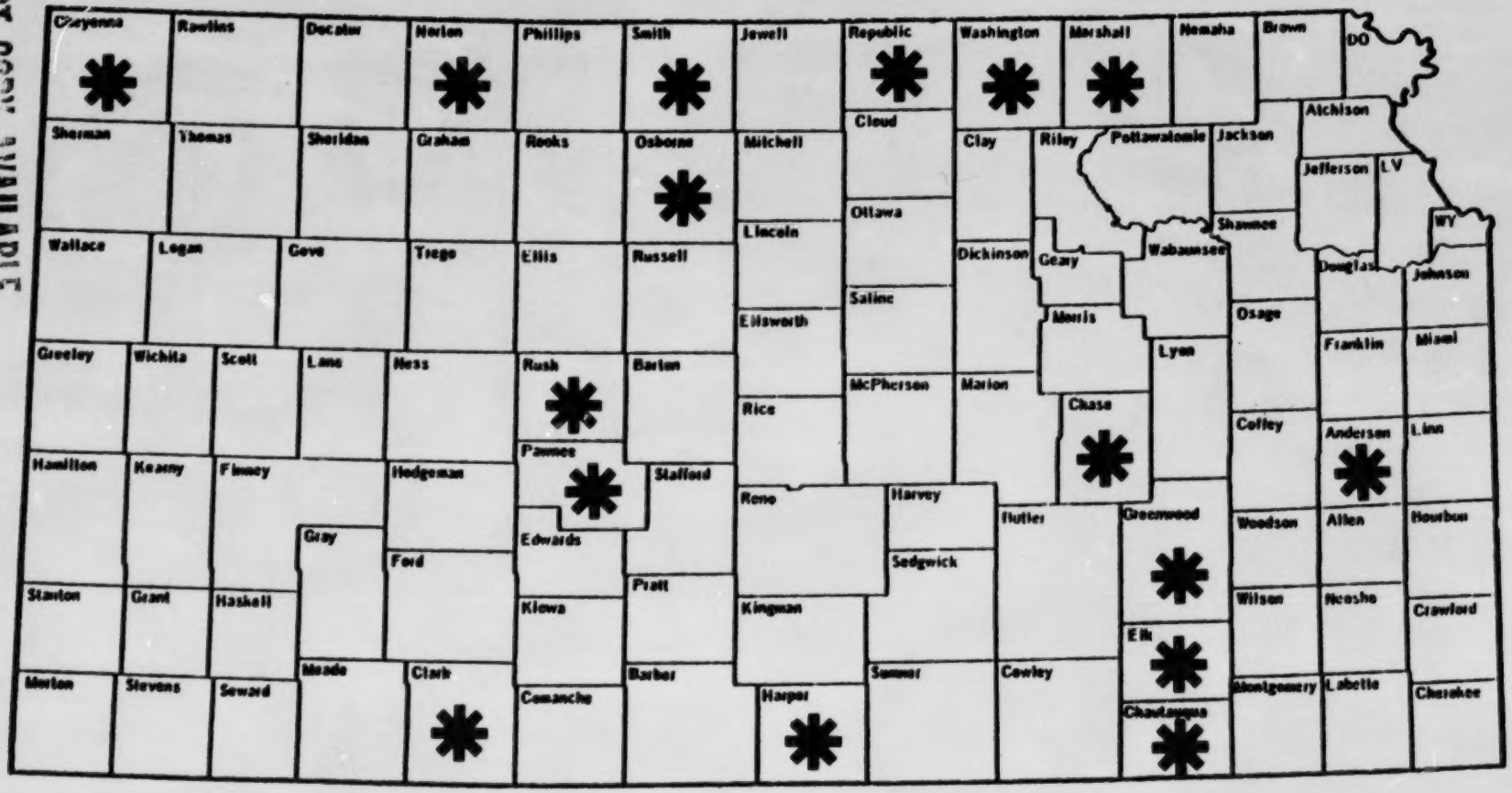

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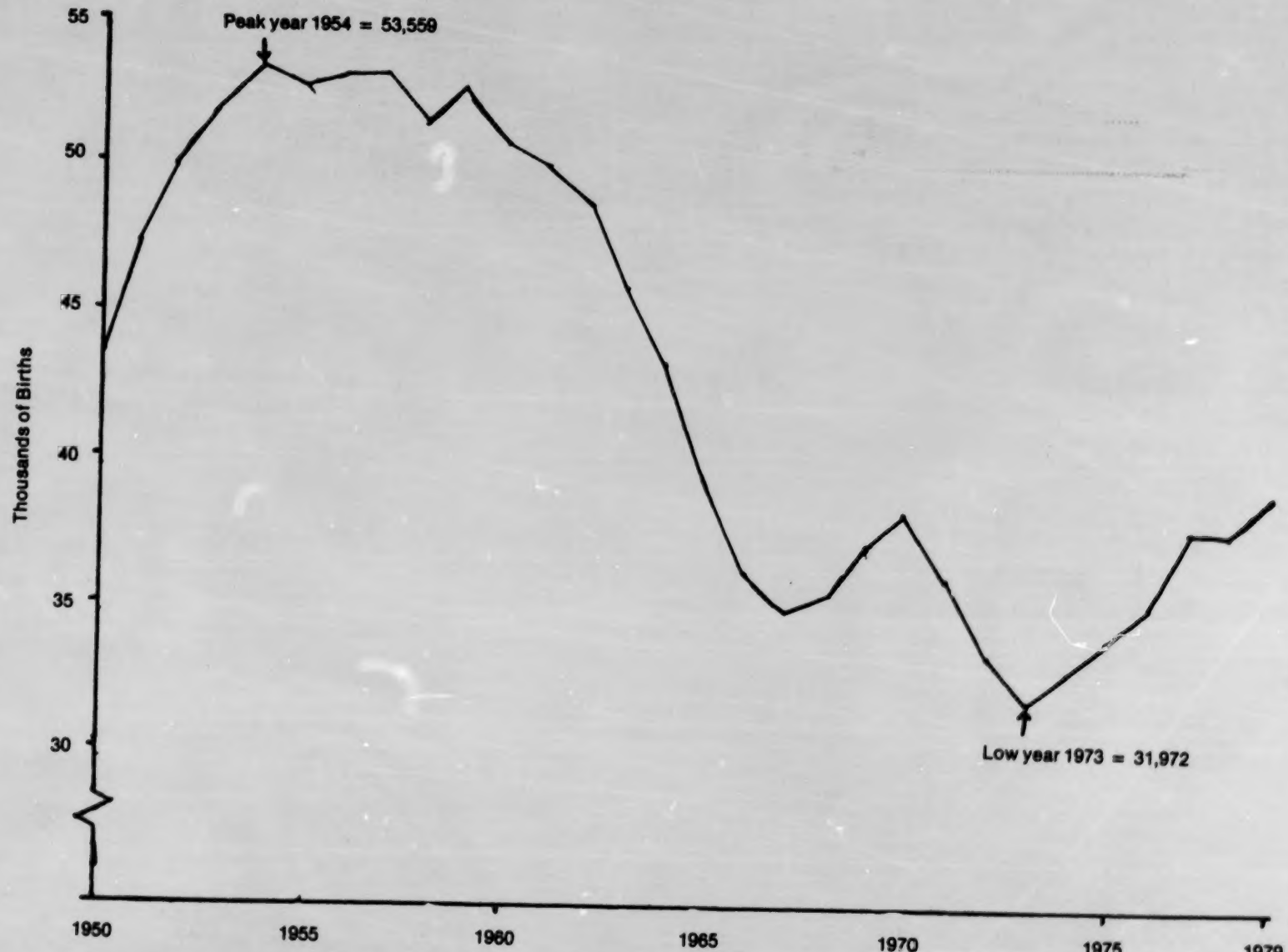
More Deaths than Births = 16 counties

Figure 4: Number of Births in Kansas: 1950-79



Migration

Kansas had a history of out-migration for most of this century until about 1975. The beginning of a reversal began in 1975-76. Figure 5 shows the pattern of net migration for three time periods: 1950-60, 1960-70, and 1970-79. Forty-five of the 105 counties experienced net out-migration between 1950-60 and 1960-70, and then net in-migration during the latest period 1970-79, when the long standing trend of out-migration began reversing.

Figure 6 shows total population change (including natural increase and net migration) for Kansas counties. At this juncture, I would like to define some of the terms used to describe populations by size, geography, and political units. The traditional terms have been rural and urban. Very simply, urban means any place with a population of 2,500 or more, and rural, the remaining population (or the population living in concentrations of fewer than 2,500 or in the open countryside). This means that Girard in Crawford County with a population 2,661 is an urban place as well as Holton in Jackson County, Lindsborg in McPherson County, Wamego in Pottawatomie County, and Belleville in Republic County. But so are New York City, Kansas City, and Wichita. There are great differences between urban places, in population, in social organization and complexity. Due to technology, communication, and transportation over the past three plus decades, an expanding literature speaks of the loss of the rural character of America.

The terminology that has been increasingly used to describe the population and its social, economic, and political character is metropolitan and nonmetropolitan county units. The basic definition of a metropolitan county is one that contains a city or twin cities of 50,000 inhabitants or more and adjacent counties that are socially and economically integrated with the city (a major component of integration is commuting to the city or county in which the city is located). All other counties are considered nonmetropolitan. Kansas has eight metro counties as depicted by the asterisk in Figure 6.

Before 1975, thousands of Kansans left the state seeking employment opportunities in metropolitan areas. That out-migration drained off most of the potential population growth from natural increase. For example, during the 1960s natural increase contributed 202,435 persons to the state's population while 131,975 persons left Kansas through out-migration (see the top panel of Table 2). The out-migration represented a loss of slightly more than 6% of the state's 1960 population, but the birth rate was high enough for the state's population to grow 3.2%.

During 1960-70, metro Kansas grew 4½ times faster than nonmetro Kansas did. Nonmetro Kansas lost 44,304 persons in that decade due to heavy out-migration. More than 9% of the nonmetro Kansas population was lost to migration. The metro counties grew by 114,764 or nearly 12.5%, all from natural increase because metro Kansas lost 1.68% of its population to out-migration. As mentioned before, nonmetro out-migrants in the 1960-70 decade and earlier moved to metro areas in and outside of Kansas and since most of them were (and are) in childbearing ages, the potential and reality of natural increase is great, as the 14.15% increase in metro Kansas between 1960-70.

Between 1970 and 1979 a dramatic narrowing of the components of population change between metro and nonmetro Kansas is evidenced. In fact, for the state as a whole net migration was nearly zero. Only 314 more persons moved out than moved in compared with 132,000 more in than out during the previous decade. Not only did Kansas grow at a faster rate (5.34% compared with 3.23%), but also 43% of the state's growth was in the 97 nonmetro counties (nearly 52,000 of the 120,000 increase). This increase is not the result of natural change. Natural population change in nonmetro counties declined from 5.74% to 3.35% (or from 72,000 to 41,000 for 1960-70 and 1970-79, respectively). The increase resulted from a dramatic turnaround in migration. From losing 116,511 persons between 1960 and 1970; to gaining nearly 11,000 between 1970 and 1979.

Beginning in 1970 (and earlier in some areas of the U.S.), a new and unanticipated trend emerged known as the "population turnaround," "rural renaissance in America," "nonmetropolitan reversal," and the "new migration." The nonmetro counties (rural areas, small towns, and cities) began growing faster than metropolitan counties. Between 1970 and 1975 nonmetro Kansas still experienced net out-migration, but started to experience net in-migration in 1975-76; so most of Kansas' nonmetro net migration gain has been since 1975.

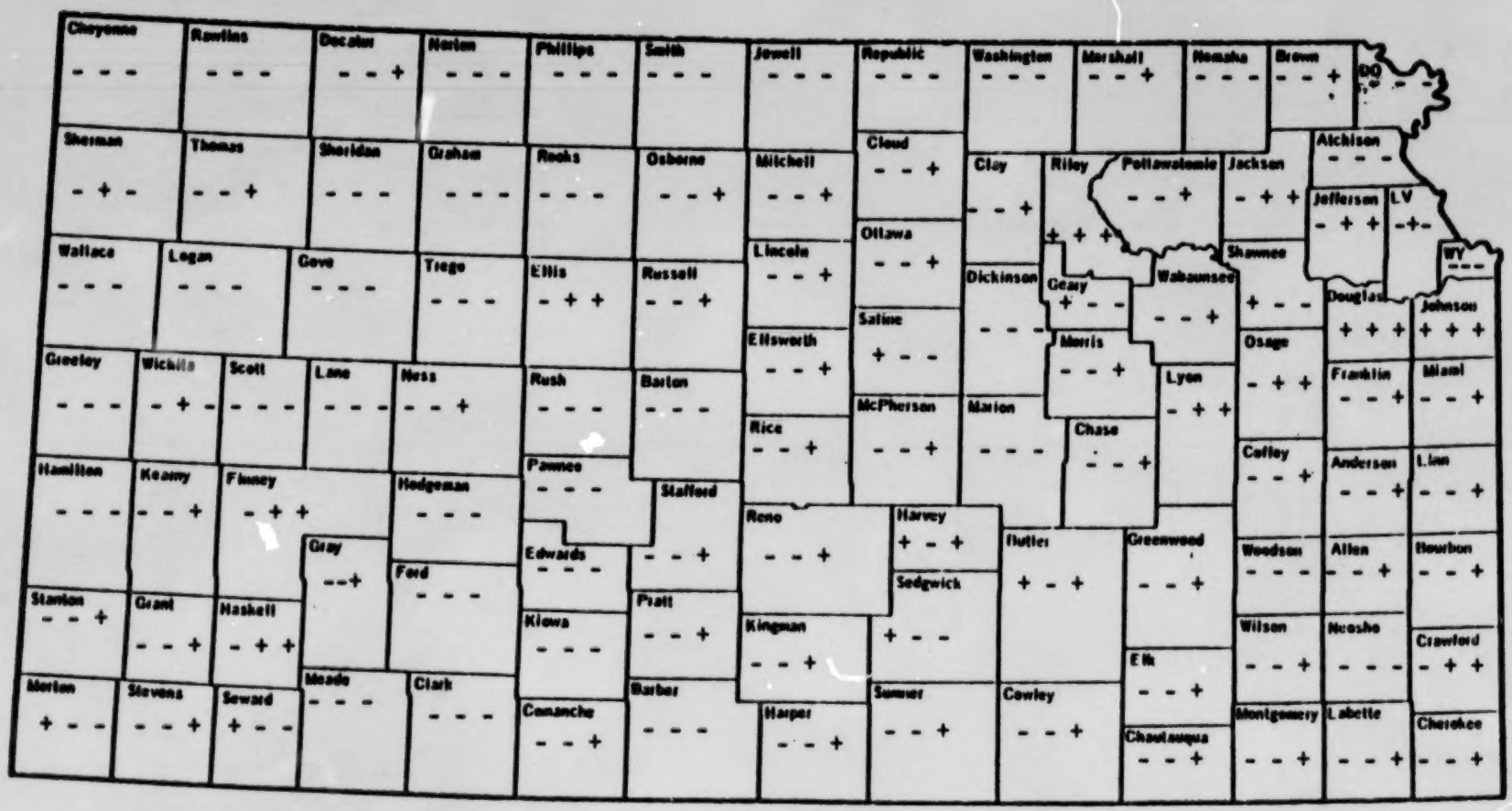
Figure 7 shows the nonmetro turnaround counties in Kansas. The literature suggests that a county can be considered a turnaround county if 10% or more of its base year population (in this case 1970) was added during the period under investigation. As you can see from Figure 7, eight nonmetro counties fit the "sacred"-10%-increase definition. If we use a slightly less stringent definition of 6 to 10%, six additional counties are included. And Kansas follows the national trend. Only five of the 14 counties are adjacent to a metropolitan county. The remaining nine nonadjacent counties are dispersed and fairly isolated,

Table 2: Components of Change—Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Kansas Counties, 1960-70 and 1970-79

	Population				Natural Change		Net Migration	
	1970	1960	# change	% change	#	%	#	%
Kansas	2,249,071	2,178,611	70,460	+ 3.23	202,435	+ 9.29	– 131,975	– 6.06
Metro	1,034,821	920,057	114,764	+ 12.47	130,228	+ 14.15	– 15,464	– 1.68
Nonmetro	1,214,250	1,258,554	– 44,304	– 3.52	72,207	+ 5.74	– 116,511	– 9.26
	Population				**Natural Change**		**Net Migration**	
	1979	1970	# change	% change	#	%	#	%
Kansas	2,369,080	2,249,071	120,009	+ 5.34	120,323	+ 5.35	– 314	– 0.01
Metro	1,103,269	1,034,821	68,448	+ 6.61	79,558	+ 7.68	– 11,110	– 1.07
Nonmetro	1,265,811	1,214,250	51,561	+ 4.24	40,765	+ 3.35	+ 10,796	+ 0.89

Metro counties: Butler, Douglas, Jefferson, Johnson, Osage, Sedgwick, Shawnee, Wyandotte

Figure 5: Pattern of Net Migration 1950-60, 1960-70, 1970-79



+ = Net in-migration
- = Net out-migration

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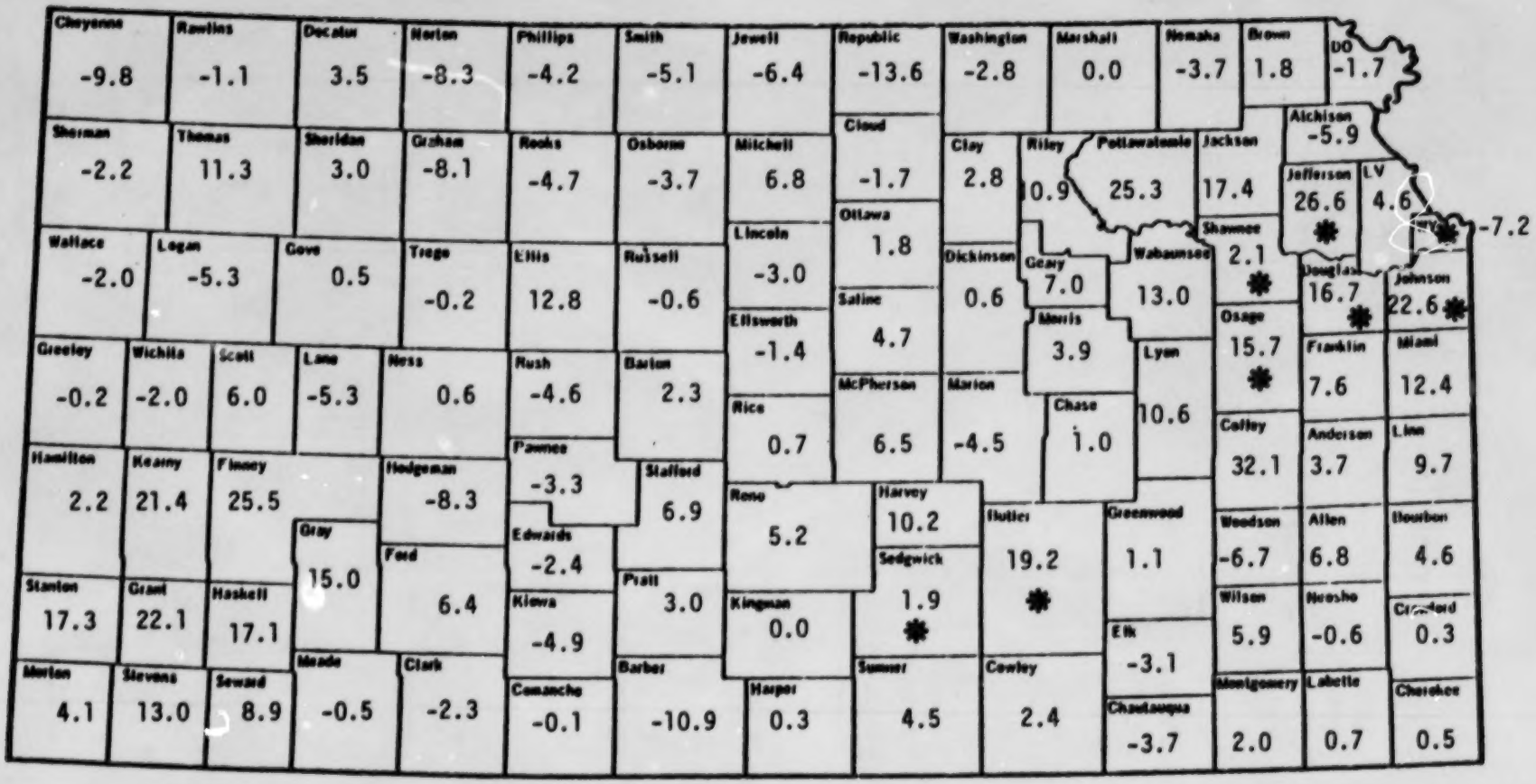
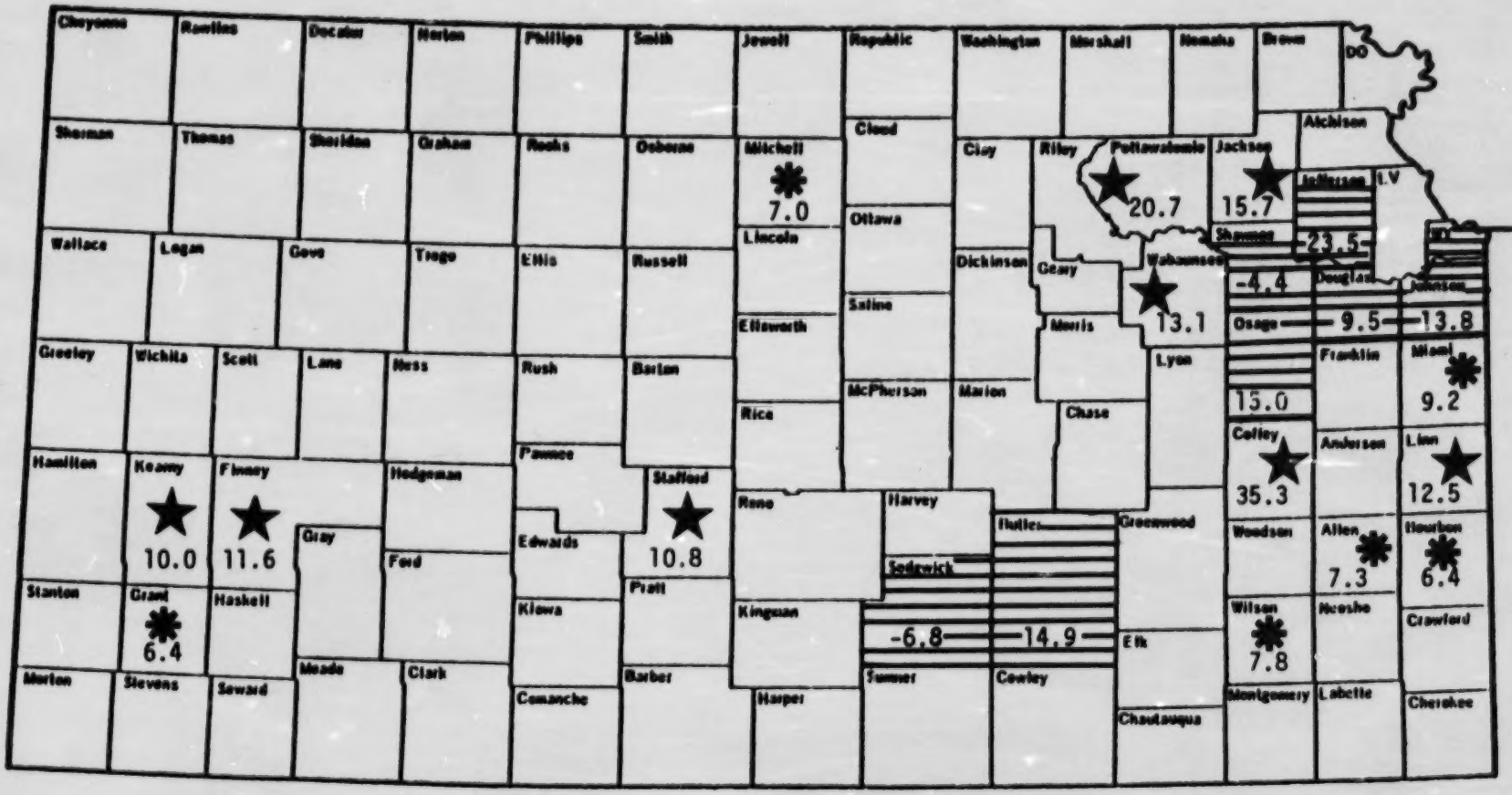
Figure 6: Percent Change in Population—Kansas By County, 1970-1979



* = Metro counties
Metro counties —7 increased; 1 decreased
Nonmetro counties —58 increased; 39 decreased

State total = 5.3%
Metro = 6.6%
Nonmetro = 4.2%

Figure 7: Nonmetro Turnaround Counties = Kansas 1970-79
Net Migration 1970-79
Metro = −11,110 (−1.1%)
Nonmetro = +10,796 (+0.9%)
All counties = −314 (−0.014%)



★ 10 + % net in-migration 1970-79 nonmetro counties = 8

✱ 6-10% net in-migration 1970-79 nonmetro counties = 6

▤ Metropolitan Counties

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and several are extremely rural. The national trend suggests that there is no dominant pattern. "Urban spillover" and "urban sprawl" do not explain much of the nonmetro growth. Nationally as many nonadjacent, nonmetro counties as adjacent counties are growing, and in Kansas it's even greater.

The rural character of nonmetropolitan America is changing largely because urbanites are migrating to nonmetro counties. Metropolitan-to-nonmetropolitan migrants often want a simpler, less hectic, and higher quality of life. But, at the same time, they want the urban amenities they left behind. That often creates migrant-native conflict over services, taxes, etc.

Another small group of counties is growing rapidly from net in-migration. They are the non-core counties of the metropolitan areas (see Figure 7). For example, the core metro counties (those counties like Sedgwick, Shawnee, and Wyandotte) that contain large cities all have net out-migration. The non-core counties of Butler, Osage, Jefferson, and Johnson, where substantial commuting exists to the core counties, are rapidly growing (suburban bedroom communities).

The nonmetropolitan counties have experienced dramatic reversals in two demographic trends: (1) from high fertility in the 1950s to low fertility in the 1970s, and (2) from massive population loss through out-migration during the 1950s and 1960s to population gains through in-migration during the 1970s.

Recent growth in the nonmetropolitan counties of Kansas is directly attributable to the turnaround in migration patterns, for the decline in out-migration and the shift to in-migration (even with declining rates of natural increase) have permitted these areas to register some significant population gains since 1970.

Studies around the nation indicate several factors have influenced this turnaround in migration. First, Americans have long viewed their cities as economic rather than cultural entities. With the decentralization of industrial and service employers to more remote locations and the development of interstate and intrastate highway systems, families now can seek new residences in nonmetropolitan counties without foregoing potential employment income. So the well-documented American preference for living in the country or small towns can be satisfied without significantly affecting the family's income.

In some nonmetropolitan counties of Kansas, manufacturing has provided new jobs, thus reducing the impetus to leave the area in search of employment opportunities. That could help explain population growth in Miami, Linn, Bourbon, Allen, and Wilson counties. Two counties that could be called "boom" counties are Coffey with the construction of a nuclear power plant and Finney with Garden City becoming a regional service center in southwestern Kansas. If the in-migration in Kansas is similar to that in other nonmetropolitan areas across the nation, a portion of the movement is composed of former Kansans returning to earlier places of residence.

In the Ozarks and the Upper Great Lakes, recent studies indicate the recreation-based migration has contributed to the growth of rural areas that offer an environmentally pleasant place to live, often at lower cost than urban areas. Frequently associated with the recreation-based migration are retirement aged persons who find a lower cost of living in nonmetro areas than in metro areas.

Population by Age: Senior Citizens and the School-age Population

Table 3 and Figure 8 show the population aged 60 and older. Associated with age-selective net out-migration in the 1950s and 1960s and with retirement and recreation migration in the 1970s is an increase in the elderly population. Table 3 shows percentages aged 60 and older in Kansas increases from 1950 to 1985 and then declines slightly in 1995, with the elderly steadily increasing from 1950 to 1990.

The percentage of elderly in the nonmetropolitan areas decreased from 1950 to 1975 (from 80% to 65%), probably due to more and better health and medical care in metropolitan areas. However, we see a substantial increase between 1975 and 1980 and only slightly fluctuating percentages between 1980 and 1995. Several reasons that could account for this are: (1) improved nonmetro rural health and medical facilities; (2) the development of nursing home facilities in nonmetro areas; and (3) recreation-based retirement migration. Very simply, people are retiring earlier and living longer, and many of them moved to nonmetro areas. The aged could be a factor in the future of rural school districts. Older folks want services other than education, and they may vote against school issues.

Table 3
Population aged 60 + Total, Metro and Nonmetro Kansas 1950-1995

	# 60 +	% 60 + in Kansas	% 60 + in Met-Nonmetro
1950 Kansas	279,722	14.7	100.0
Metro	56,143		20.1
Nonmetro	223,579		79.9
1960 Kansas	324,445	14.9	100.0
Metro	70,865		21.8
Nonmetro	253,580		78.2
1970 Kansas	366,838	16.3	100.0
Metro	121,236		33.0
Nonmetro	245,602		67.0
1975 Kansas	385,800	17.0	100.0
Metro	132,100		34.2
Nonmetro	253,700		65.8
1980 Kansas	418,700	17.5	100.0
Metro	107,868		25.8
Nonmetro	310,832		74.2
1985 Kansas	436,800	17.8	100.0
Metro	112,368		25.8
Nonmetro	324,432		74.2
1990 Kansas	446,000	17.7	100.0
Metro	117,435		26.4
Nonmetro	328,565		73.6
1995 Kansas	439,000	17.2	100.0
Metro	118,378		27.0
Nonmetro	320,672		73.0

Table 4 and Figure 9 show the school-age population (defined here as ages 5-19) for Kansas and its metro and nonmetro components. The effects of the baby boom show an increase in the school-age population from 1950 to 1970 (438,000 to 657,000 or from 23% of the Kansas population to 29%). However, that 20-year period radically

Figure 8: Population Aged 60 + , Total, Metro, and Nonmetro Kansas, 1950-1995

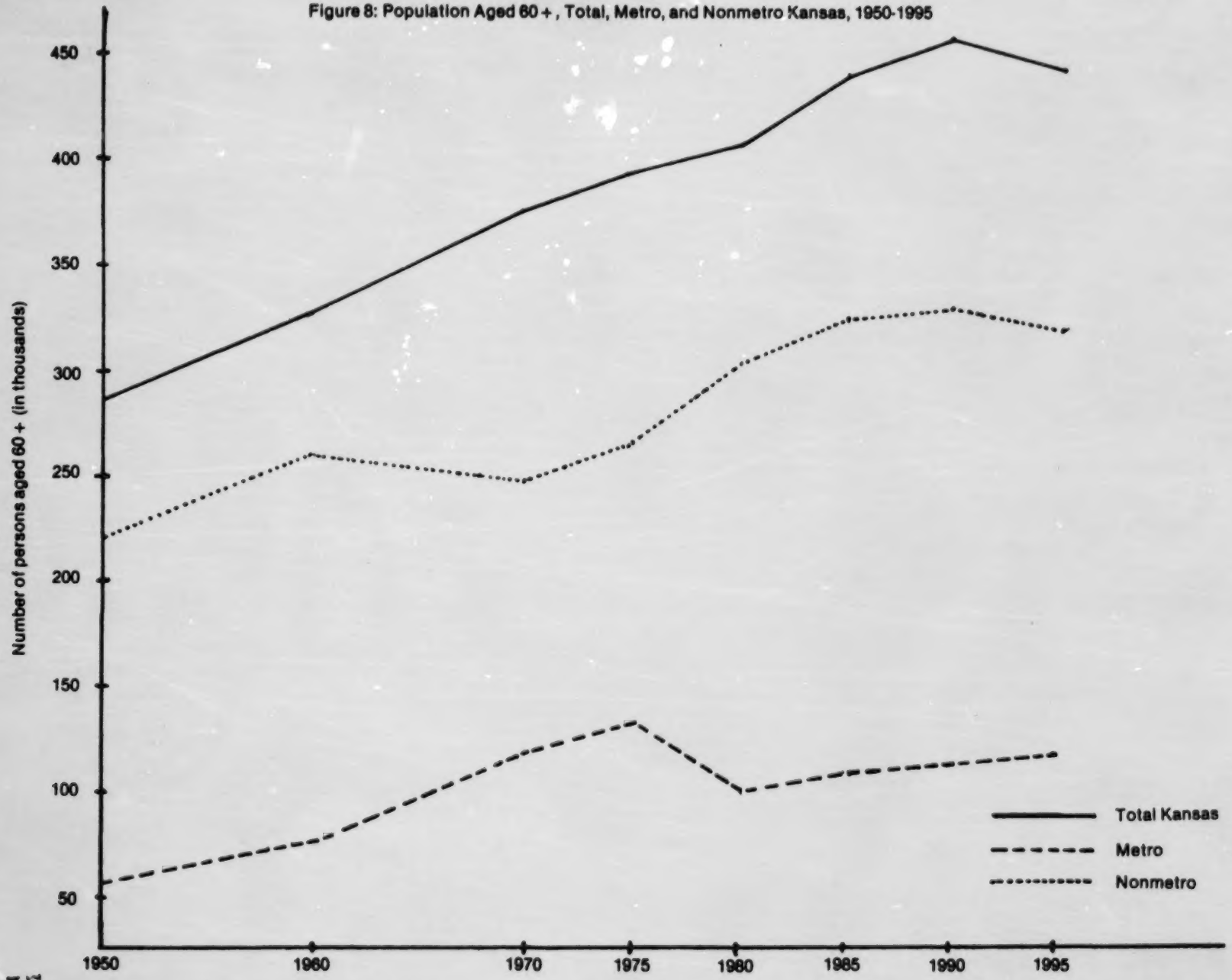

Table 4

School-Age Population, Kansas, Metro and Nonmetro, Ages 5-19

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1985	1990	1995
Kansas	438,380	584,619	657,141	589,200	518,800	530,200	556,500
Metro	97,590	159,633	288,161	268,602	245,145	251,012	263,540
Nonmetro	340,790	424,986	368,986	300,598	273,655	279,188	292,960
Age 5-19 as % of total population	23.1	26.8	29.3	23.7	21.1	21.0	21.7
Metro Age 5-19 as % of total 5-19	22.3	27.3	43.9	47.2	47.3	47.3	47.4
Nonmetro Age 5-19 as % of total 5-19	77.7	72.7	56.1	52.8	52.7	52.7	52.6

Total, Metro, Nonmetro population (all age groups)

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1985	1990	1995
Kansas	1,905,299	2,178,618	2,249,071	2,403,600	2,460,900	2,518,900	2,564,100
Metro	457,261	606,418	976,889	1,085,882	1,097,597	1,155,776	1,176,486
Nonmetro	1,448,058	1,572,200	1,272,182	1,317,718	1,363,303	1,363,124	1,387,614
% Metro	24.0	27.8	43.4	45.2	44.6	45.9	45.9
% Nonmetro	76.0	72.2	56.6	54.8	55.4	54.1	54.1

altered the metro-nonmetro components of the school-age population.

The nonmetro group from 5 to 19 years old decreased from nearly 78% of all Kansans in that age group in 1950 to 56% in 1970; conversely, the percentage in metro Kansas increased from 22% to nearly 44%. From 1970 to 1980 we see a continued decline in number and percentage of youth from 5 to 19 in nonmetro counties, and then a leveling off between 1980 and 1995 (although the number of nonmetro youth increases from 1985 to 1995).

The size of the school-age population in nonmetro areas can be changed in two ways: (1) through birthrates, which will hold steady or continue to decline (the latter now seems more likely), and (2) continued or stepped-up net in-migration, if the people are in the childbearing ages—those constituting families with children. Based on data from 1975 to 1979 (not shown here), in-migration could very well occur.

Conclusions

The changing patterns of population growth and distribution in Kansas during the past three decades will have social and economic consequences for the state. The changes and the influences that accompany them will demand both sound planning and decisions by citizens and officials at all levels of government. Understanding how population changes affect the need for public services and facilities can help citizens and public officials improve the quality of life in Kansas.

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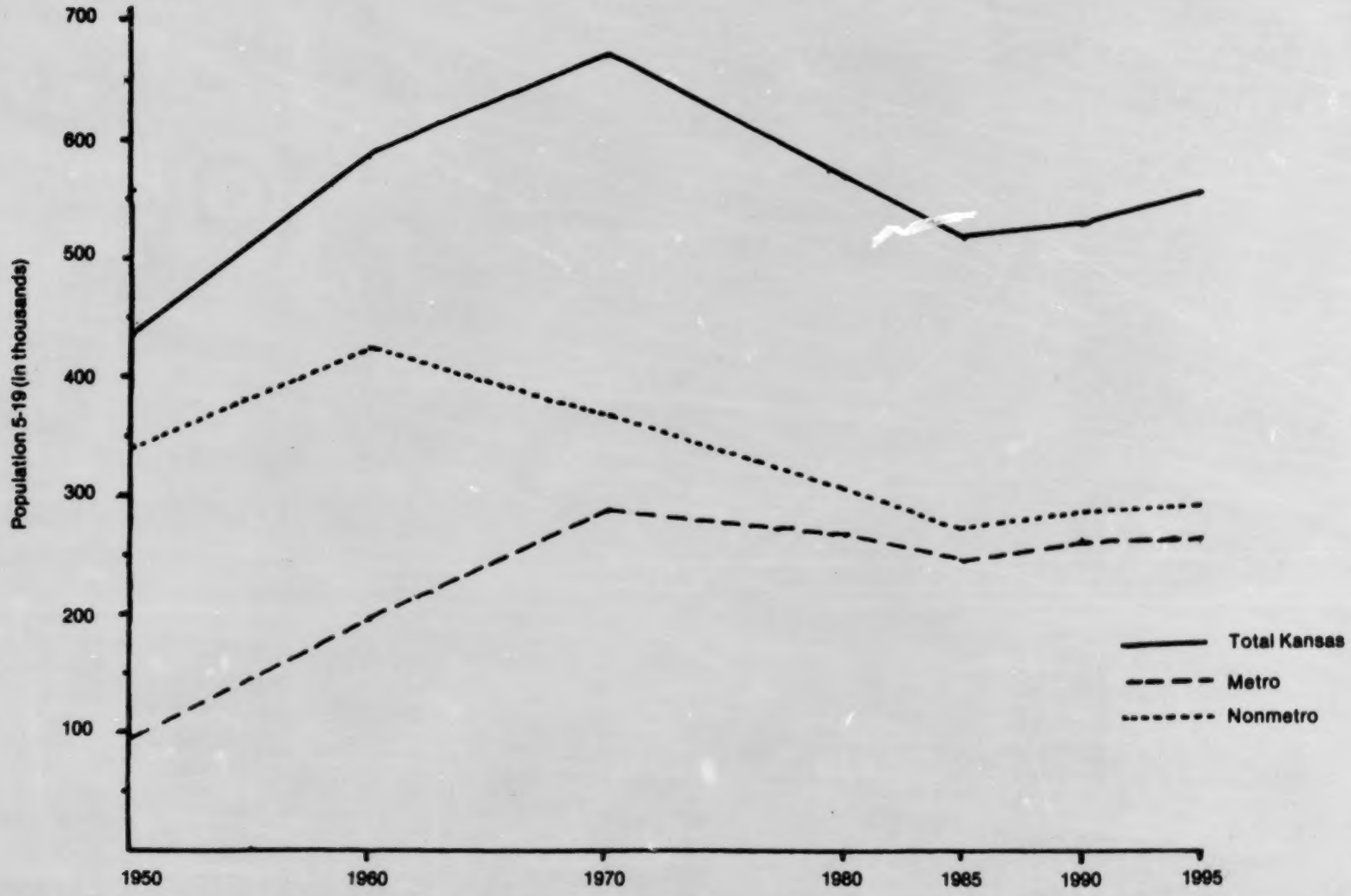
Figure 9: School Age Population (5-19), Total, Metro and Nonmetro Kansas—1950-1995



Curriculum Development: A Function of Design and Leadership

Douglas D. Christensen

The curriculum of today's American public schools seems a long way from its Greco-Roman roots. Some traditions and elements of our heritage, however, remain firmly embedded in current programs and practices. English[1] aptly describes the current state of curriculum in American schools as "a strangely pragmatic mixture of 'things' that have been washed ashore with the Pilgrims, fundamental Protestantism, industrialization, educational movements and reforms, waves of immigration, and most recently the backwash of the Space Age ... a living museum of hodgepodge ..."

Curriculum of American schools is "hodgepodge" and "museum-like" because of a history of sporadic and haphazard growth.[2] Curriculum has lacked valid theory and empiric data to guide its evolution. Therefore, instead of shedding unwanted and unneeded parts, curriculum growth was amoeba-like, absorbing more and more within its boundaries. Today's curriculum literally contains everything and excludes little. English further describes current curriculum as a "sponge, soaking up everything ..."[3] In fact, some educators postulate that curriculum boundaries don't exist at all, or if they do, they are vague and porous and permit virtually everything to enter and be contained within.

Curriculum in American schools "must be more than something that contains everything ..."[4] Curriculum development has suffered from inertia, ineffectiveness, and complacency. Curriculum development has been, and still is, hindered by the state of its internal condition. At least three conditions are directly related to the general infant nature of curriculum development as a specialty area of professional practice. Each condition sufficiently hampers development of curriculum practices and together all three virtually block significant improvement in schools as institutions, improvement in quality of school programs, and improvement in quality of results (student outcomes).

The following conditions are major reasons for the current state of curriculum development. If resolved, each condition is also key to advancement of curriculum development as professional practice.

1. There is lack of accurate conceptualization of and general consensus on the major constructs of curriculum development.
2. There is lack of leadership among educators with abilities to conceptualize, develop, implement, monitor, and evaluate effective curriculum design.
3. There is lack of specification and differentiation in the roles of superintendents of schools (including associates) and building principals (including associates) who must assume leadership roles.

Schools Need Curriculum *and* Leadership

American schools need mechanisms for making rational decisions about what schools are to do and about what is properly included as programs, services, and functions. American schools also need leadership if such mechanisms are to be designed, implemented, monitored and evaluated.

Curriculum leadership begins with conceptualization of basic concepts and fundamental constructs. Accurately defined, concepts and constructs provide foundations for building the professional practice of curriculum design.

Curriculum Defined

Curriculum derives from the Latin root "currere" or running.[5] Therefore, curriculum is a path, a means to somewhere else. Curriculum is a map showing a direction. Curriculum is best described as designs or blueprints.[6]

Formally, curriculum is the total planned program of schools. Curriculum is expressed in mission, purposes and goals. Curriculum may apply to mission, purposes and goals of entire organizations, or may apply to purposes and goals of individual programs, services or practices of organizations.

Stated another way, curriculum is a set of systematic intentions.[7] Curriculum states what is to happen in schools (in terms of learner outcomes).[8]

The function of curriculum is to form foundations upon which instructional programs are constructed. Curriculum also establishes boundaries determining which instructional programs are to be included and which are to be excluded.

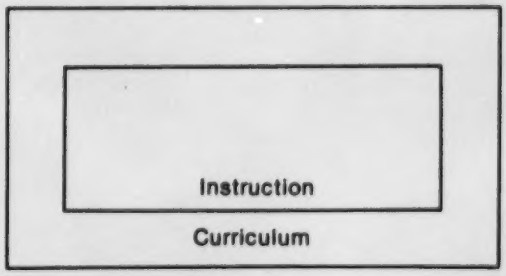


Figure 1
Curriculum—Instruction Interrelationship

Curriculum performs both enabling (foundation) functions and constraining (boundary) functions.

Instruction Defined

Instruction refers to all decisions related to operationalization of curriculum. Instruction includes, but is not necessarily limited to, subjects, courses, activities, policies, rules and regulations, schedules, budgets, services, personnel, and facilities.

Instruction represents the "how" of curriculum which represents "why" or "what for." Instruction translates curriculum into action.

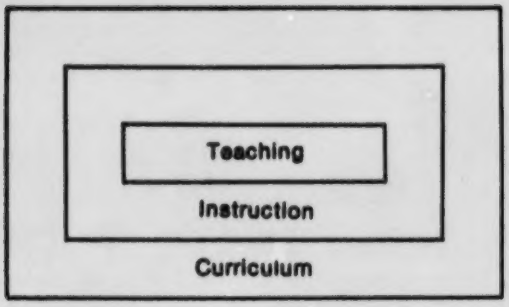


Figure 2

Like curriculum, instruction performs both enabling (foundation) functions and constraining (boundary) functions.

Teaching Defined

Teaching is the unique behaviors of individuals referred to as teachers. Teaching includes knowledge, attitudes and skills—both personal and professional—that teachers bring to classrooms to impact upon teacher-learner relationships.

Teaching is what teachers do. Teaching is defined in practice, i.e., teaching is what teachers know, say, do or feel.

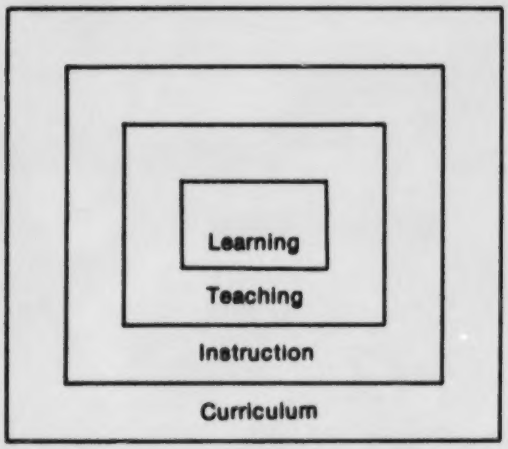


Figure 3

Like curriculum and instruction, teaching performs both enabling (foundation) functions and constraining (boundary) functions.

Learning Defined

Learning is the unique function of individuals referred to as learners. Learning is what students do in response to teaching. Learning is the intended result of curriculum.

Formally, learning represents changes in an individual's behavior. Learning may occur as changes in levels (achievement) of what students know (content), feel (attitudes or feelings) or do (skills). These changes may be referred to as cognitive, affective, and psychomotor achievements, respectively.

Reality

Previous models depicted theoretical interrelationships among functions of curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning. The interrelationships exist differently in actual practice.

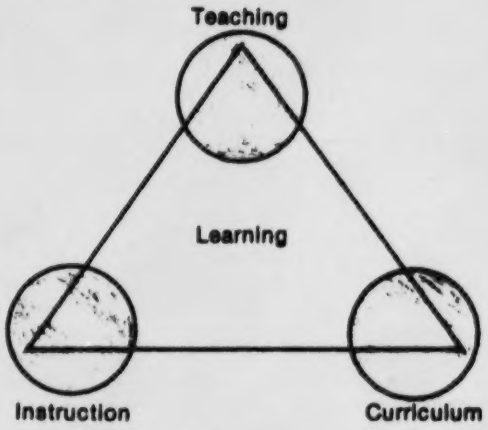


Figure 4
A more practical model of the interrelationships among functions of curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning.

Extensive empiric data is not required to determine that interrelationships among functions of curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning are not as integrated nor as sequential as indicated by the model in Figure 3. Each function is neither totally based (foundation) nor totally constrained (boundary) by preceding functions.

In practice, some phases of instructional programs rest soundly on foundations of curriculum and are likewise contained within its boundaries. However, there are also instructional programs, depending upon how curriculum is defined, that have no basis in curriculum and are not contained within its boundaries.

Similarly, some teaching in classrooms is provided for in prescribed instructional programs (curriculum guides). We also know that some teaching may not be supported nor constrained by either curriculum or the prescribed instructional program. Such teaching is assumed by teachers who are neither compelled to deviate from prescribed programs nor restrained from doing so.

An example may help clarify actual interrelationships among the functions of curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning.

> **Example:** *Teacher A, an art teacher, lectures his class about general behavior in school assemblies emphasizing the virtues of self control and individual responsibility. Teacher A's lecture is appropriate as a response to incidents of student misbehavior. (Most school curriculum designs include either explicit or implicit statements about "good citizenship.") However, there is no instructional plan (curriculum guide) that directs a teacher of art to teach students about citizenship.*
>
> *Hence, teaching about citizenship is not part of the planned program of instruction but permissible in the total activities of teachers because of the curriculum goal to produce "good citizens."*

Some learning occurs because of the interacting support and constraint of curriculum, instructional programs and teaching practices.

However, we also know some students learn things in schools that are not part of the curriculum, not part of instructional plans and not results of efforts of teachers. We also know students learn things that may generally relate to the curriculum but they are learned totally outside the realm of schools.

Functions of Curriculum

In reality there will never be a pure interrelationship, e.g., both totally supporting (foundation) and totally constraining (boundary), among the sequential functions of curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning. However, current disparities and haphazard relationships can certainly be improved upon and, in fact, must be improved upon if schools are to be both efficient and effective in helping students to learn. It is imperative that mechanisms are devised and implemented to integrate relationships among curriculum, instruction, teaching and learning.

Default vs. Design

It is not a question of whether schools will have curriculum or not. Curriculum exists as it is practiced. Curriculum may be either expressed or implied.

Mission and purposes, i.e., curriculum, of schools are able to be determined a priori or by inference. A priori mission and purposes are those that are formal, explicit, announced in advance, and are clearly evident in practice. Mission and purposes can also be determined by inference. Trained observers are able to infer intentions and purposes from observed actions of individuals within organizations and from effects (responses) of those actions upon clients (students).

Inferred mission and purposes are almost always achieved by chance, if achieved at all. Inferred mission and purposes occur not by design but rather by default.

Schools have curriculum. It may occur because of design or because of default.

Design Functions of Curriculum

In addition to supporting (foundation) and constraining (boundary) functions, curriculum has educational and management functions.[9] The educational functions of curriculum are to define those skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are to result from a sequence of schooling, i.e., instruction. Well-defined curriculum identifies those things to be included[10] and those things to be categorically excluded, or not included because there exists no compelling reason to do so. Management functions of curriculum refer to the organization of resources necessary to accomplish educational purposes.[11]

As both educational plans and management plans, Pratt[12] states that sound curriculum design must include the following characteristics:

1) be written and formally organized,
2) identify plans for activities,
3) identify intentions, including,
   3.1) what learnings students are to master,
   3.2) means of evaluation to be used to assess learning,
   3.3) criteria according to which students are admitted to programs,
   3.4) materials and equipment to be used, and
   3.5) qualities required of teachers.
4) include intentions deliberately chosen to promote learning,
5) articulate relationships among different elements (objectives, content, and evaluation) integrating them into a unified and coherent whole, and
6) be a system.

English[13] describes curriculum design as a management tool for identifying and controlling results (pupil learnings) that are desired. English[14] further identifies that means of achieving desired results are fundamentally functions of time—task (content) relationships. In other words, "curriculum (design) is a plan that specifies resource configuration within a set of rules to enhance the probability that any given purpose is subsequently attained."[15]

If, as Drucker[16] indicates " . . . the proper structure of work—of any work—is not intuitively obvious . . . ," then educational functions of curriculum make the obscure obvious. In fact, educational functions of curriculum not only identify mission and purposes for schools, but also identify that some purposes are more important than others.[17] Educational plans of curriculum design focus attention on primary mission and purposes[18] of schools. Educational plans state affirmatively "of all things we could teach in schools, these are the things we are going to teach." Or, stated in learner outcomes "of all things students could learn, these are the things they should learn."[19] Educational plans play similar functions to financial budgets. Financial budgets identify those functions for which organizations intend to spend money because they have been determined to be more important than other functions that were not, but could have been, included. It is the same for educational plans of curriculum design.

In the absence of educational plans, worthy outcomes in terms of benefits to students are left to chance. Worthwhile outcomes are achieved by accident or default but not by intention or design. English claims that no rational and responsive organization "can leave to chance . . . those purposes for which it is responsible . . . and expect to survive very long."[20]

Management Plans

Management plans in curriculum design are developed subsequent to educational plans. Management plans involve two distinct functions. One, management plans configure organizational resources into processes for efficient and effective accomplishment of defined purposes.[21] Second, management plans include defined measures for monitoring[22] efficiency and effectiveness of processes implemented to integrate organizational resources with regard to accomplishment of desired purposes.

Achievement of outcomes specified in educational plans are usually the direct result of the capacity of management plans to identify necessary resources and to integrate them into processes that are catalytic. In essence, " . . . quality of instruction is affected by quality of management."[23]

Conclusions about Curriculum Design

Conclusions about the worth of curriculum design can be readily drawn from a growing body of empiric data as well as evolving theory. The following are supportable conclusions about curriculum design:

1. *Curriculum plans will reduce variance in the actual curriculum experienced by students.*[24]

There will likely always be gaps between the ideal curriculum—the one prescribed in mission, purposes, goals and objectives—and the real curriculum existing in classrooms. The real curriculum is key to student outcomes. It makes little difference that there exists a written curriculum if that curriculum is never experienced by students. Curriculum variance will always exist as long as schools are places for people. Teachers will bring unique characteristics and abilities to classrooms. And, so will students. Teachers will also make choices about curriculum. And so will students.[25]

2. *Accomplishment of specific purposes is not solely dependent upon formalization of purposes (educational plans) but also on development of management plans for their accomplishment.*

The announcement of virtuous intentions does not cause their inevitable achievement any more than it discharges leadership in the organization from any further responsibility. Accomplishment of purposes requires leadership to mobilize people, resources and whatever else is required. Purposes are seldom accomplished by accident.

The educational plans of curriculum design establish prescribed relationships between content to be experienced by learners and time which determines order of experiences and amount of time to be allotted.[26] Management plans, on the other hand, configure resources around content-time prescriptions. Necessary support of educational plans include at least four basic resources: people—including all resources which individuals bring to classrooms, time—including both staff (system time) and students (client time), materials, and money. Processes for configuring resources are commonly identified as curriculum guides, schedules, budgets, policies, decision-making and so forth.[27] Although these processes are not commonly thought of as part of curriculum they are as vital to achievement of intentions as the intentions themselves. Management plans identify, integrate, maintain, and control all elements of organizations in order to achieve conformance to design. Curriculum power, as identified by English,[28] is essentially the ability to achieve rational conformance to a sound design. It is the degree of conformance between elements of curriculum plans—content, time and resources—which will determine ability of schools to deliver according to intentions.

3. *Curriculum rigor is not a function of numbers of students rejected but a function of ability of the design to include diverse learner differences within conforming frameworks of specific outcomes.*[29]

The public cry for tougher standards is evidenced by Back-to-Basics and Competency-Based Education movements. Many feel schools have not been successful in teaching students those things which are, by some general consensus, supposed to be essential for successful citizenship. Many generalize that schools are not tough enough, standards are too lax, and in some cases standards are even lacking. In effect, many are saying that curriculum is so loosely defined and managed that it virtually includes everything, excludes nothing; everyone is successful and no one is rejected.

It is not logical to assume that curriculum is rigorous because of the number of rejects that are produced. Rigorous curriculum is more rationally described as including the following elements:[30]

1.) clear mission and purpose statements that establish defined boundaries for decisions about inclusion or exclusion of instructional programs, services, and practices,

2.) planned relationships between content and time identifying optimal conditions for sequence and repetition leading to mastery,

3.) plans for integration of resources—people, time and money—supportive of the defined mission and purposes,

+ 4.) linkages between prescribed intentions (student outcomes) and content-time sequences to be encountered by students, and

+ 5.) assessment (testing) linkages between prescribed intentions and actual student outcomes.

Curriculum Leadership Is Unique

The role of leadership in curriculum design is critical. Leadership not only affects quality of the design itself but also determines extent to which design is translated into programs, practices and services which achieve desired outcomes.

Leadership does not occur in isolation. Behavior of leaders and followers are intricately interwoven. Leadership, in its purest sense, occurs at points where there are followers engaged in pursuits similar to, or compatible with, that of individuals referred to as leaders. Leadership, then, occurs whenever followers are engaged.[31]

Educational leadership is not leadership per se. Educational leadership is contextual. The context of educational leadership is school-community which has, or at least should have, preconceived, formal or informal, notions about mission and purposes. Educational leadership then, is limited to behaviors that are compatible with organizational goals.[32] In other words, leadership in schools is behavior related to accomplishment of defined mission and purposes.

Educational leadership is more closely related to management, a special kind of leadership. Educational leadership, like management, is pragmatic. Educational leadership is realization of organizational intentions.[33]

Leadership is collective or group-based. Burns[34] defines leadership as relational, collective and purposeful. Leaders are relational by creating links with others that allow communication and exchange to take place. Leaders also relate (are sensitive) to fundamental needs and values of others.[35]

+ "Curriculum mapping" is a management tool developed by Fenwick W. English for the purpose of monitoring congruence among the three elements of the curriculum: the prescribed curriculum (curriculum guide), the real curriculum (teaching) and testing.

Conclusions About Educational Leadership

Educational leadership is a management function. Boundaries of leader behavior include curriculum design, rules—both formal and informal—of organizations, and resources—human, material and financial—identifiable and available.

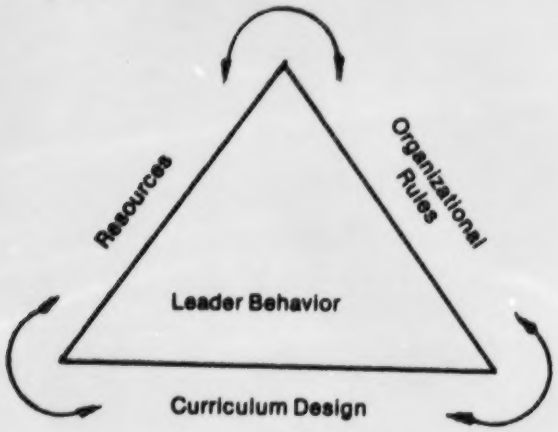


Figure 5

Management functions of educational leadership are constrained by curriculum design, organizational rules and resources.

The following conclusions about educational leadership in public schools can be derived from a vast body of empiric data and theory about leadership and management.

1. *The function of any sort of management (of anything) is to ensure that desired purposes are attained with resources provided within the existing limitations (rules).*[36]

Management does not depend upon accidental fortunes to achieve results but depends upon management "programs," people and other organizational elements for accomplishment of desired results. "The cornerstone of effective management moves beyond acceptance of serendipity as a measure of adequacy."[37] Management is goal-centered.[38]

Basically management has four functions:[39]

1.) defining mission and purposes of organizations,

2.) efficiently and effectively integrating resources essential to accomplishment of mission and purposes,

3.) utilization of feedback of a) monitoring plans and progress for possible corrective intervention and b) assessment of outcomes, and,

4.) motivation of personnel through leadership, including modeling, and communication.

2. *Management skills necessary for successful leadership would fall into three categories: human, technical and conceptual.*[40]

Human skills would include ability to work in, with and through groups of people. Effective management personnel are able to understand needs of others, encouraging cooperation, and motivate others.[41]

Technical skills include ability to use knowledge, methods, techniques, and equipment necessary to perform specific tasks.[42] Conceptual skills may be more important than the other two because of "boundary" functions. Human and technical skills are applied in accordance to conceptual skills of leaders. Conceptual skills include the ability to not only see the whole enterprise but also the ability to recognize interdependence among organizational components in addition to ability to observe how changes in one area affect other areas.[43] Conceptual skills provide leaders ability to perceive effects of their behavior on organizations and permits them to act according to intentions of entire organizations rather than those of immediate groups,[44] or their own,

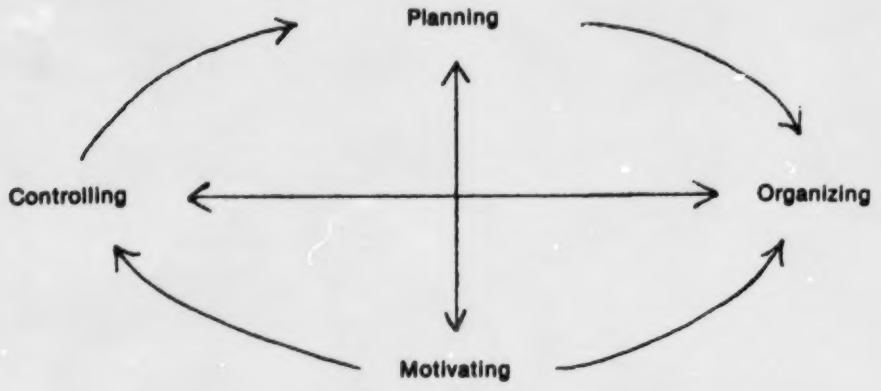


Figure 6

The functions of management are planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling.

leaving achievement of organizational intentions to default, accident or other actions incidental to accomplishment of intentions.

3. *The context of educational leadership is defined by curriculum design. Educational leadership requires a source of organizational purpose and direction.*

It is not intentions of leaders that are to be accomplished, but intentions of organizations. Organizational intentions cannot be subordinated to those of individuals.[45]

4. *Effects of management are measured in terms of outcomes with respect to efficiency and effectiveness.*

The degree to which outcomes are realized is the measure of management's impact upon organizations. Efficiency in management is a criteria implying cost. Efficiency must be judged in terms of costs of achieving each outcome or cluster of related outcomes. "What costs were required to reach a certain outcome?" is a question of efficiency.

Costs may be computed for all resources expended in the process. Costs would include, but not necessarily be limited to, time—staff and client, personnel, materials, facilities and equipment, and money.

Management must also be judged on effectiveness. Efficiency and effectiveness are two distinct concepts. Functions of effectiveness are not "how much?" but rather "was it *worth* the cost?" Effectiveness looks at results achieved, compares them to intentions and judges relative worth of achievement in relationship to costs.

5. *Management must include decision-making processes.*[46]

Decision-making includes both acts of decision and actions of implementation and follow-up. Educational leaders need to understand basics of decision-making which would include the following:[47]

5.1) decisions are pragmatic in nature, i.e., value of decisions is dependent upon success of actions which follow,

5.2) decisions affect courses of action of enterprises, (even "no decision" is a decision—for no action), and

5.3) practically every decision is sequential, i.e., they are preceded and followed by other decisions.

Role of Administrators

Administrators, seeking to become educational leaders, understand curriculum design and understand leadership in management contexts. Without such understanding, administrators may lead and they may not. It depends upon ability to engage followers. Without educational leadership, it is almost certain that organizational outcomes will not be realized, or if they are, default and accident will be the cause rather than design.

Educational leadership could be effectively summarized to include the following:[48]

1.) Leaders assume primary roles in development of curriculum design specifying educational outcomes for learners and management plans for professionals.

2.) Leaders have visions of purpose and abilities to articulate visions into goals, objectives, time lines, rules, relationships and responsibilities.

3.) Leaders are professional specialists with skills in curriculum design but remain generalists in education.

4.) Leaders are accountable for learning performances. All students are not going to learn all that schools have to offer, but professions must account for results that are achieved.

5.) Leaders possess skills in four critical areas: curriculum design, clinical supervision, staff development and teacher evaluation.

6.) Leaders combine intellectualism (reflective thoughts) with activism (action).

"The Buck Stops Here"

The role of superintendents of schools is not important in educational leadership for schools. It is imperative. Superintendents can no longer be just "administrators." Superintendents must do more than lead in directions they are being pushed. Superintendents must be player-managers, but even more, superintendents must act as links between desired learning[49] and organizational potential for bringing it about. Superintendents cannot hide from responsibilities to lead.

The superintendents' role as educational leader-manager, could be described to include the following:[50]

1.) Superintendents conceive, interpret, and then give effect to proposals that will elevate quality of education.

2.) Superintendents lead, facilitate, even coerce formulation of curriculum design by continually raising questions about mission, purposes, and outcomes.

3.) Superintendents educate communities, in general, and boards of education, in specific, about curriculum design and the roles each must play.

4.) Superintendents develop patterns of involvement throughout school-communities that are practical, understandable to others, and dependable.

5.) Superintendents remove constraints and barriers to effective organizational development and carefully construct curriculum design to provide foundations for growth and boundaries for determining direction.

6.) Superintendents make decisions about curriculum design so that decisions of others are purposive and responsive to the design.

7.) Superintendents assist other personnel, especially principals, in developing and defining their respective roles as instructional leaders.

In summary, superintendents must evidence commitment to curriculum design. Vann agrees with the premise that the superintendents' first priority must be curriculum design. Vann reports results of studies indicating that subordinates will perform in areas according to their "perceived notions about their superior's priorities."[51]

Principals as Instructional Leaders

Principals will devote their time to areas in which their supervisor's (superintendents) place priority.[52] So it is with teachers. Behaviors of principals determine what is honored in schools.[53]

The role of building principals as instructional leaders could be summarized to include the following:[34]

1.) Principals evidence commitment to instruction through both reflection and action.

2.) Principals provide safe environments for professional exploration and self inspection. Environments of schools must be sufficiently safe to encourage searching for alternatives and risk-taking.

3.) Principals specify expectations for teachers and students interaction. Principals who set high, but reasonable, standards for teacher behavior tend to cause teachers to set the same high, but reasonable, standards for students.

4.) Principals assume leadership responsibility for the "real" curriculum that students experience in classrooms. Continuous monitoring of course content and student achievement is essential for conforming classroom curriculums to intentions contained in formal curriculum designs. All activities of schools should be organized to revolve around teaching and learning.

5.) Principals perceive schools as ecological systems which, like its natural counterparts, nurtures itself and the living things (people) within. The ecosystems of schools must expect growth and change as natural courses of events.

6.) Principals are persistent. Principals must tirelessly push, prod, guide and, above all, lead other professionals in commitment to curriculum design and instructional development.

7.) Principals are responsible for selecting, orienting, supervising, and evaluating teachers. Teachers are key to curriculum, the one that is experienced by students. Roles of teachers cannot remain undefined, unsupervised, and unevaluated. Most teachers want leadership from building principals including evaluation.

"What For?"

Research findings clearly identify qualities of effective and high achieving schools.[35] Among the findings are the following:

1.) high teacher expectations of students,

2.) frequent monitoring of student programs,

3.) routinized classroom management tasks,

4.) adequate student time on task,

5.) opportunity for students to learn material on which they are tested,

6.) appropriate levels of difficulty of materials,

7.) strong instructional leadership,

8.) favorable learning climate, and

9.) high expectation of performance by principals.

It is the responsibility of educational leadership to cause achievement of specified student outcomes. In doing so, management must provide positive climates in which teachers are free (from non-teaching duties) to teach. Management is also responsible for protecting instructional programs including protection of students from exploitation, protection of time for teaching, and protection from interruption.[36]

Curriculum design provides frameworks for "getting it all together." Educational leadership is the catalyst for making it happen.

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Rural Teacher Recruitment and Retention

James Akin

Since this is a conference dealing with small and rural schools, I would like to add one item to my introduction. I believe that regardless of the definition of rural or small schools I have been there. I hail from Vermillion, Kansas, which I believe is now the smallest town in Marshall County. We had a very small high school with 11 in my graduating class and less than 50 in the high school. The Superintendent of the Vermillion School District is here and he can identify the ruralness and smallness about which I speak. In addition, I went to an elementary school which was 2½ miles south of Vermillion; I attended there with eight or nine other students in a one-room country school. Unlike the previous speaker I never felt that anybody was chasing us out of town. Perhaps the reason we left was that of our 11 graduating students, 10 of us were guys and when the girl left there was nothing to entice us to stay.

I regret that this speech is going to be reduced somewhat in scope from that which I originally prepared. Time schedules get to be a problem and by cutting this approximately in half, we will get back on schedule, I think.

I am very glad to be a part of this conference and to share some thoughts with you and vice versa. It seems that this whole conference is a series of good news and bad news. The bad news is that there are some things that we have been living with for quite a while—some problems out there with which we need to deal. In regard to these problems, we have the potential to handle and some are larger and need to be dealt with on a collective basis. The good news is that we are here today to muster some forces and develop some strategies so that collectively we can do things that will be beneficial for the students of Kansas.

Some of the necessary topics are related to teacher recruitment and retention which is a topic of great interest to me and about which I will be speaking later. Other important topics relate to finance and legislation.

I was asked to speak about my perceptions of teacher supply and demand both from a historical and a present perspective. In addition, I will comment a bit about my expectations concerning the availability of teachers for the next few years and a bit about recruitment and retention possibilities. If we have time we will try to get some input from you on these topics, too.

Some of you were in the school business in the 1960s, and we were working to find teachers for your school systems. You will remember that we had an acute shortage of teachers at that time; every article on teacher supply and demand indicated that we had an extreme shortage in virtually every teaching field. There was one basic difference between the 1960's shortage and our current situation. In the 1960s every year the universities and colleges of the United States produced a new record number of beginning teacher candidates. Our shortage which developed during the 1970s and that we are now experiencing in the early 1980s has been caused primarily by an annually *reduced* number of new beginning teachers.

During the late 1960s we started to feel a slight surplus of teachers in some teaching fields. As we entered the 1970s we had a slight surplus in some teaching fields and a significant surplus in others. Articles were written repeatedly indicating that "we have a great surplus of teachers." Rarely did articles ever mention that we had a *great* surplus of teachers in a few fields, a *surplus* in other fields, *balanced* supply in some fields and a shortage or acute shortage in other fields. Most articles just continued to repeat "we have too many teachers." Such articles likely contributed greatly to the reduced number of students in teacher education programs since that time.

Another major factor in the supply and demand picture has to do with the working conditions for teachers. Teachers repeatedly tell me how different it is being a teacher now as opposed to teaching in the late 1950s or the 1960s. The role of the teacher and the expectations of a teacher are greatly different from those of previous times. Education is under attack as you well know. That is not so surprising because every institution is under attack; it doesn't make any difference whether it's the Carter Administration, the bankers, or teachers and administrators. Everything is under attack and education is not exempt from that onslaught. Teachers feel great pressure from this. Many teachers feel that they are in a fish bowl with some students who don't want to learn. The teachers feel they are being watched by parents or community members who are looking for scapegoats to explain the reason for the misbehavior and nonlearning of their children. It appears to me that the humanitarian teacher is not prepared to deal with this kind of pressure. I hope that we can improve their readiness to deal with their environments through improved in-service programs and/or teacher education programs.

The teacher's classroom is no longer the haven that individuals once thought it to be. The public has become very active as a watchdog of education. Watchdogs are not always good evaluators! The working environment detracts from an increased supply of teacher candidates.

Since 1976 our office in cooperation with the Association for School, College and University Staffing has been conducting opinion surveys to gather more reliable data on actual teacher supply and demand. It has taken a long time to get the attention of the national press but after four years, it's starting to change its posture as far as the availability of quality teachers. One of the problems that is inherent in this kind of topic is that the press writes about teachers as if they taught in one field at one age level. That is to say that "a teacher is a teacher is a teacher." Thus, there is no distinction between the surplus of physical education teachers or a shortage of mathematics teachers.

I have with me today a chart that indicates what has been happening in terms of the preparation of teachers by the six Regents' institutions of the state of Kansas during the period 1972-1980. This includes Kansas State University, The University of Kansas, Emporia State University, Fort Hays State University, Wichita State University, and Pittsburg State University. The chart indicates that the annual number of new teachers completing certification at these six institutions collectively has dropped from approximately 3,500 in 1972, to 1,820 in 1980. That is a very

significant drop and it is inconsistent with the drop in the production of new teachers across the United States. This represents about a 55% drop in the eight-year period.

Looking at teacher supply and demand in a regional sense, recent surveys that I have completed, show that in a seven-state area (including Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Minnesota) there is generally a shortage of teachers in most fields. There are, however, pockets of surpluses by field and in various geographical areas. Availability of teachers appears to be most likely to occur in larger cities, adjacent to teacher training institutions and adjacent to graduate schools. When advising a teacher where to look for teaching positions, the Midwest has the most jobs available. The opposite is that a Kansas school administrator has the most difficult job in all states of finding an adequate quantity of teachers. In Kansas the greatest shortages of teachers are in the fields of agriculture, industrial arts, special education areas, mathematics and the sciences. There are a number of other areas which are moving toward extreme shortage as well. The surplus areas include: physical education, health education, social sciences and the primary grades. I have the philosophy that only fools predict the future so let's be a little careful here. I think that we can look ahead with a reasonable amount of certainty. Let's reflect on the data I presented earlier which indicates a 55% reduction in the annual availability of new teachers and extend our teacher supply and demand charts into the 1980s. Let's couple that with the predicted increase of elementary students to be entering your schools in the mid 1980s. By the 1990s the upturn in the number of students to be educated will be in the secondary levels. These are known factors. Based upon the information which we have, it would appear, that the relative availability of teachers at the elementary level will be reduced during the 1980s. I would guess that we will see an increased problem in staffing middle schools and upper elementary classrooms first. Contrary to the predications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics it would appear that the shortage of teachers in many fields at the secondary level will continue throughout the 1980s and will worsen in the 1990s unless there is some drastic increase in the preparation of new teachers in the profession. This is because there is such a backlog of qualified teachers at the present time in some of those areas.

Teacher supply and demand is applicable to any discussion on rural education. One of the questions here is "how do we go about better preparing people in sufficient quantity to meet the needs of schools, particularly small and rural schools in Kansas?" As you know, there is quite a bit of discussion around the state of Kansas relative to five-year teacher education programs. I think that we must be aware that if we all move to five-year programs in the state of Kansas that we suddenly delay by one year a group of prospective teachers into the classroom. The result will be a crisis that year, and a significant loss of manpower for our schools. How are we meeting the needs of small and rural schools of Kansas if the requirements go beyond the current four years? In addition, we are going to have to guess what number of people will be detracted from entering longer teacher education programs. This is especially true in view of the fact that teacher salaries are among the lowest of all professions. In answering some of the questions related to small schools in rural Kansas one would have to ask whether or not the timing is right for drastic increases in the time required to attain teacher certification.

It should also be noted that in the teaching fields which are in short supply there are generally good alternatives to the education environment. If you will look at teachers of mathematics, vocational agriculture, industrial arts, special education, and science, there is employment outside of traditional education with higher salaries and better working conditions. You have heard how people who are offered salaries of $13,000 in teaching have ended up accepting positions in industry for salaries in the general vicinity of $18,000. This says that schools are not only competing with each other for qualified teachers; but the entire economy is your competition.

Factors other than salary, some positive and some negative, attract teachers to other professions. I have been serving on a committee charged by the Standards Board of the State of Kansas to determine why teachers leave teaching. We have surveyed a number of people who left the profession this year to determine the real causes for their decisions. While we have our opinions on this, preliminary data indicates that salary is the overriding consideration leading to the departure from teaching. There are also some perceptions from these former teachers that there has been a lack of administrative support, some classroom managerial problems, and other personal reasons such as family responsibilities that have caused them to leave the classroom either temporarily or permanently. One might be able to conclude from the preliminary data that the careers of education professionals continue to orbit so much around the careers of other professionals of their families that we lose a good number of teachers as a result of transfers and other non-educational causes. The sad part of that is that many people who depart temporarily eventually make it permanent.

For the few minutes remaining, let's turn our attention to what we might do in the recruitment area. Some of you were part of the recruitment generation of the 1960s and may remember some of the tactics that were successful and can be applied in the 1980s. One of the areas that was pushed strongly in the 1970s was recruitment for the profession; we can't recruit the quantity of teachers we need from teacher education programs if we don't get students to enter teacher education programs as freshman. It appeared to me that in the 1960s, teachers were promoting teaching very heavily. Conversely in the 1970s and 1980s teachers have encouraged their own children not to teach and also detract from the general recruitment by their own attitudes about their profession. This is not always intentional. So that it doesn't sound like I am picking on teachers I am simply stating this as a fact and not as a condemnation. To put things in perspective, many school administrators have the same negative feeling about education. This is not to say that we ought to close our eyes to the negatives of teaching and other types of education work. It is to say that with great help from the public, we need to make the profession a more desirable and better paid job in which to work. At that point, and even now, we should stress more the positives of the profession. With those changes I think that we can redevelop our sense of pride and a new sense of satisfaction within the profession of education.

As far as any individual school recruitment is concerned many of you are already working with this, but it is important that we work to increase small school visibility.

Graduating teacher candidates are not sufficiently aware of the location of Vermillion or Ashland or other rural communities. The larger communities and their respective schools do have some natural visibility due to television news, newspaper articles or whatever. Somehow we need to get people to be more aware of what is happening in small schools and to know what the opportunities are in those communities. We need to have some good things said about the lifestyle in the small communities. Among the things which can be done to improve the visibility of the small school district is to develop materials for your school and community and circulate them to every Career Planning and Placement Center. Some school districts develop and distribute colorful three ring binders with pictures of community, schools, and related information. They keep us updated with new materials; these include salary schedules, calendars, new pictures, etc. Visibility is necessary to correct some of the misinformation people have about what it is like to work and live in the small rural school and community. Short videotape presentations could be made and put on file in offices like our own. In addition, more on-campus visitation is very important. I know that you are already wearing too many hats but this is one that is very important, and often overlooked by small schools. It is not enough just to get your staffing completed for 1980 or 1981, you must continue to maintain a productive, progressive image on the college campus. Consider the possibility of regular visits to the Career Planning and Placement Center for prearrangad interviewing days, special interview fairs, and other programs.

I see that we are out of time so let me extend an invitation to you from me and all of my colleagues in educational placement offices across the state to come in and ask how you can better promote a strong, positive image for your school district and community. Certainly we pledge to you our continued support in your staffing function.

Jim Akin is associate director for the Career Planning and Placement Center at Kansas State University.

Part III

Individual and Group Roles in Rural and Small School Education

The Role and Responsibility of Administrators in Rural Schools

M. Dale Carlson

Development, execution and supervision of the total school program would be my immediate response to a description of the role and responsibility of the rural administrator. Certainly the words all-encompassing or all-inclusive would apply as well because in a small district the chief administrator is expected to fulfill those roles necessary to implement and operate the total school program. This is not a condition of choice. Rather, supportive personnel which can be assigned areas of the school program are not available.

A description of the district I have served for the past fifteen years will illustrate this point. USD #223 is a large rural district that covers 378 square miles. Within the boundaries of the district we have five small towns; Barnes, Hanover, Hollenberg, Linn and Palmer. We have a student population of 731 students. Five hundred and twenty are public students. The remaining 211 are parochial elementary students. We have two high schools of 2-A size. Hanover is a high school of 123 students while Linn has 130. Four elementary public schools exist. One is located at Barnes, one at Hanover, one at Linn and one at Palmer. In addition I mention four parochial schools in the district. They must be brought into the picture because of the services we provide for them in the way of transportation, food service, Federal Title programs and the special education mandate. We have 52.4 certified staff and 49.5 supportive paraprofessionals. Distance is a real problem for us. Outside of Linn and Palmer being only six miles apart, the rest of the schools are scattered from one end of the district to the other. The distance between Linn and Hanover is 28 miles. Barnes is centrally located between Linn and Hanover but still we find 14 miles involved between each center. When describing the size of USD #223 one can say that it takes in one-third of Washington County.

When I first assumed the superintendency thirteen years ago, the district was in a state of turmoil. The board was going through a superintendent about every six months; five separate and sovereign communities were adjusting to being placed in the same administrative unit and our educational program had just about ground to a halt. I was asked to take the position and I was assured of the support of the board and a majority of the communities. Stepping into this situation I asked the question, "What is it going to take to make things go?" The first answer to this question centered around making the most effective use out of our administrative staff. A plan was developed that called for the assignment of a principal officer at each major center. One principal was assigned to the Hanover center and one was assigned to the Linn center. Their responsibilities would be centered around supervision of our K-12 program. The third administrator would then be left with the supervision of Barnes and Palmer elementary schools as well as those responsibilities of the central office. The board would not consider any expansion of this staff. We were to operate with a three-man administrative team.

The second and most important answer to the above question centered around a definition of the areas of responsibility that had to be fulfilled so that the district could function and the teachers placed in an environment where they could teach. I arrived at the conclusion that organization and leadership had to be provided in the following areas:

Budget	Physical Plant	Food Service
Staff Recruitment	Curriculum	Transportation
Evaluation	Development	Public Relations
and Supervision	Communication	

I then approached the position from the standpoint that these areas must become the major responsibilities of the central administrator. One fact became very apparent. It would be nice to assign staff recruitment to someone. It would be nice to assign curriculum to someone but there was no one remaining. I had to approach the position with the understanding that these areas had to be served effectively if the district was to function and that the central office had to provide the leadership and organization. I now realize that the position in which I found myself was not unique. In our rural Kansas districts many of my colleagues are faced with the same areas of responsibility. District size severely limits the number of administrative positions available yet, the areas of responsibility are comparable to the larger district. An administrator's effectiveness in a rural district is dependent upon how well he is able to react to the large number of areas that must be served. At this point of the discussion the conclusion must be drawn and emphasis placed on the fact that work must be done in areas that detract from the true administrative purpose because there is no one that possesses the authority, experience or training other than the administrator.

Therefore, it is proper now to examine the role and responsibility of the rural administrator. In our discussion above I highlighted key areas that had to be met if a district was to function. One of the most important of these areas is the budget. When we consider most unified district budgets are over one million dollars for a school year and when the eighteen months provision is included and federal and state programs are included, this exceeds two million dollars. A two million dollar operation requires a sound fiscal plan. The superintendent has to be the budget developer as well as the fiscal manager throughout the budget year. To make certain this responsibility is met, I draw a budget message which is a financial blueprint of the year's operation. We also have developed a series of departmental budgets that help define spending by the staff. Without such a plan I can see trouble developing for the administrator.

When talking about the budget I must also again mention the role of budget manager during the rest of the year. Before I became superintendent a situation existed in our district where the board was under the impression that it had $47,000 to spend for equipment and teacher

requisitions. When all encumbrances were in they had less than $10,000. I have found that the board was reassured when he had responsibility in accounting and that they were not hesitant to purchase needed items if they knew where the money was coming from.

Once the budget is drawn I rely heavily upon the paraprofessional. In our office we have a staff position charged with bookkeeping and processing orders and requisitions. We have a second charged with payroll, social security, etc. These two office positions are guided by the board's clerk who in turn reports periodically to me. A new feature involved in fiscal management is to watch cash flow. Since idle fund interest exceeds ten percent, we have to invest these funds. I watch this and am responsible in recommending to the board revenue producing steps. When discussing responsibility, the budget preparation and fiscal management has to have a top priority.

The second most important responsibility of the rural administrator is staff recruitment or employment of both certified and non-certified personnel. This is a key role as well as a time-consuming one. We realize that we are as good as our people. Therefore, time spent in this area pays huge dividends. It would be nice to turn this area over to a personnel director but as I have said, none are available. Therefore in the spring of the year we must hit the road. During the days of teacher surplus I could fill our positions and not leave the office. This no longer is true. We must appear on campus and otherwise beat the bushes to fill our positions. Our turnover will run from eight to eighteen people. This does require a great deal of time but I must stress the importance of staff employment.

Equally as important is maintaining our non-certified staff members. Our labor force is somewhat limited due to our small rural population. However, the area schools seem to provide an attractive work station which results in a degree of selection. All contracts must be approved by the board of education but it is the superintendent that must make the choice and then recommend. I feel a large part of my evaluation is the people that are placed in our schools. A responsibility connected with this area is the training of the paraprofessional. I have found that many times it is the superintendent that must train the new staff member because he is the only one that possesses the understanding of what must be done and how to do it.

A third area of priority comes in the area of curriculum coordination and development. Much of the work is done by the principals and teachers but the general coordination must come from the central office. I have taken part in a number of citizens' and parents' advisory committee meetings and one outcome that frequently is stressed is that our people look to the professional to develop curriculum. We are to be the leaders in this area. As such, a period of our school calendar must be devoted to curriculum. It would be nice to have a curriculum coordinator but in his absence this role falls on the superintendent. One could easily ignore this part of the responsibility but I do not feel it is proper to be completely void of curriculum work or curriculum content. Included in this responsibility is the development and operation of federal projects, Title I, Title IV B and various special grants that exist from time to time. In the last five years administrators in the field have been faced with the development of an entire special education curriculum in order to comply with the special education mandate. In addition to the normal work in the curricular area special education has represented a large effort. I feel that my philosophy towards this subject is that one must not get so engrossed with business that he loses sight of the curriculum. This has to be a major area of an administrators responsibility no matter the level of administration.

A related area is that of evaluation and supervision. Our board policy dictates that the superintendent may enter into evaluation of teachers where warranted and in addition, is the main supervisor of non-certified personnel. First in the area of evaluation, recent due process laws and teacher tenure have created a situation where concern must be given to the evaluation instrument as well as procedure. Having been involved in three due process hearings for a nonrenewal of a tenured teacher in which we have won each case, you must have developed a thorough understanding of the inadequacies of the teacher. Even though principals are charged with the evaluation of teachers in their buildings still in a due process hearing, it is the superintendent that must present the board's case. On the other hand, from time to time there is the defense of the good teacher. When confronted with this situation facts about the teacher's ability is a great ally. When questions arise about the teacher the first contact is many times made with the superintendent. Therefore, this area constitutes a major responsibility.

The role of day to day supervision of non-certified people is another important area of responsibility. In this area one must be careful not to usurp the role of the principal in his building. I feel that a major effort in supervision is supporting the decisions of principals as much as direct supervision of non-certified personnel. As mentioned before, I feel a large measure of supervision is involved in training new people. Having properly trained cooks, custodians, bus drivers and aides determines their success in the schools.

Another area of responsibility is the area of communications. There must be a coordinated effort of informing faculty and staff of events or developments. With over one hundred people serving the district in their various roles, there has to be an effort made to direct activity through communication. We have developed a weekly memo to faculty and staff that is published every Saturday and ready for distribution Monday morning. In addition to faculty and staff, we mail this to area clergy and any other person geared to serving the youth of our area. I will not spend a great deal of time on this subject other than to say communication with faculty and staff is all important and rests largely with the central office.

Another major area of responsibility is in the area of building maintenance, improvement and even design. In the present inflationary period I feel the district administrator must be concerned about the physical plant. When there is an equipment breakdown or a leaking roof the educational program can be seriously altered. In addition, costs in these areas have skyrocketed. These areas cannot be left to chance. I feel the wise administrator is going to develop a program of preventive maintenance where there is replacement of equipment on a regular basis and annual building maintenance. Still, no matter how hard you try with all of our buildings, breakdowns are going to occur. The administrator must have the ability to deal with these problems and effectively keep the buildings running. I have also included design in this area of discussion. Given a period of tenure you are going to be involved with remodeling or even building. I have been in positions where even though an architect has been em-

ployed, I have been called upon to say what to do here or there. This places the administrator in the position where he must keep up with building materials, practices and trends, limited though it might be. He also must know where to turn for repairs. At this point in time every administrator must be concerned about energy-efficient buildings from the standpoint of conservation. This condition is placing us in an area where we need to intensify study as well as to visit with consultants about fuel reduction, etc. We also have to be very careful not to be taken in by gadgets. Many untried products are on the market today backed by very flowery advertisement. It has been my experience that the board and faculty look to the administration when problems in this area develop. We have to have the ability and knowledge to ascertain the problem and seek proper solutions. Therefore, boiler pressure, steam traps and cut-off valves have to be a ready part of our vocabulary.

I now move into areas which one might term nuisance areas of administration but because of their importance one must give attention to them. These are the areas of transportation and food service. If a student misses the bus or if the meals are substandard, I feel you are dealing with a more emotional parent than one where problems exist with the educational program. The very size of these programs will indicate their importance and need for attention. Food service now has a budget of over $125,000. Transportation is a budget item where one quarter of a million dollars will be spent. Because of their size attention has to be given to them.

Our food service program has expanded over the years to where we serve or cater to parochial schools as well as to serve as a base kitchen for meals on wheels for the aged. This is an area where effective administration must be practiced so that there is proper filing of claims for federal and state reimbursement. At the same time one cannot afford to spend a great deal of time in this area. To gauge the size of our program we serve 650-700 meals daily.

We have taken steps to make the lunch operation efficient. Since three kitchens are involved, we have attempted to coordinate our daily effort. We purchase wholesale with items delivered to a central storage area at Barnes. Kitchens then requisition from this central storage. We have been able to designate one person as our Food Purchasing Agent. We noticed that we had one head cook who was very energetic and efficient. We reasoned that this person was capable of additional responsibility so the designation was made. This is an example of attempting to use our people in the most productive manner. A concluding statement I would make about food service is that it is an area which the administrator must examine in order to see that all needs are being met. It is also an area where a great deal of delegating may be done.

Transportation is another area of concern. Steps must be taken to see that the fleet operates safely and that there is no waste or inefficiency. Since our district covers 378 square miles our fleet must be large. Our district owns thirty-seven vehicles in the form of big buses, carryalls, vans and cars. There has to be the coordination of the fleet because thirty of these vehicles are involved in the transportation of students. We have no transportation supervisor or mechanic. We rely on our drivers for attention to maintenance. We assign our buses to service stations and mechanics. We try to create the impression with our service people that this is your bus. As taxpayers you are part owner. Help us to make it run safely and efficiently. We also evaluate our drivers on how well they care for the buses. Weekly I set a goal of talking to five drivers about their buses as well as the service station involved. We are fortunate in that our board has the philosophy not to spare anything in regards to the fleet. We try to purchase two large buses and two carryalls each year so that we maintain an up-to-date fleet. My experience in this area is that preventive maintenance makes the bus safer as well as to operate more economically.

Our central office is charged with coordination of the bus fleet. I have lived in the area so long that I know where everyone lives. It is very easy for me to make up bus routes or discuss road problems due to this knowledge of the area. We also keep a monthly breakdown on the cost of each bus. By going over this study, I can spot problem areas and solve problems before they become serious. In the rural Kansas district transportation is a major concern. Perhaps the hardest decision one is forced to make is to decide whether or not to hold school during snowy winter conditions. Since the decision must be made before six o'clock in the morning, one gets the feeling he is stabbing in the dark. Our district is so large that it is possible to have a blizzard at one end of the district and light snow in the other. To further complicate matters, one group of patrons feel that if snow is on the road, school should be called off. The other group feels that weather should never cause a school closing. The chief administrative officer has to make the final decision. Because of its importance transportation must be a concern of the rural administrator. It is an area that cannot be slighted yet one must be careful not to spend too much time in this area of the school program. With proper organization, it can be handled by the rural administrator.

A final area of responsibility is that of public relations. This is a very weak area of mine. Nevertheless, it is the role of the administrator to project the school into the community. Admittedly, I do not spend enough time in this area. I do have allies in the local publishers. They will print every article we present; usually with front page coverage. I make it a practice to write a detailed explanation of our board meetings. Likewise, strong athletic programs are a very big help also. Another public relations tool I use in the rural district is to be around. I try to spend time in each town weekly and it is expected that the superintendent attend most, if not all, of the area social functions. I mention public relations because of its importance to the school and it is in an area of responsibility of the rural administrator.

Therefore, I have covered the major areas of responsibility that an administrator faces in a rural district. I suppose that one would say that many areas mentioned are non-administrative in nature. Someome else could easily do them. However—stop and think—at least in our situation there is no one else. When faced with the problem of making a district run, attention must be given to the areas mentioned. I have done everything over the past thirteen years from scrubbing urinals to outlining a two million dollar financial operation. In the rural area there are times where the administrator is the only one with the expertise necessary to accomplish a task necessary to make things run.

What would be the best training and preparation for such a position? My first answer is experience. When I was placed in my present position, I had been in the area as a teacher, coach and principal. I pretty well could an-

swer the question of what would it take to make a district run. A second qualification that is necessary is to have the ability and the determination to do the menial tasks when the necessity arises. Throughout this paper I have stressed the fact that times develop when you must meet a need and the only one left to do it is the administrator. A rural administrative position should be taken with that understanding. Determination is another necessary qualification. I have been on a one-year contract for years. Each year I enter into the position with the idea that I might only last one year but that during that time I am going to serve as the chief administrative officer of the district.

Another trait necessary for successful administration is to attempt to make your decisions on sound educational practices and trends. I attempt to attend as many seminars, workshops and/or college classes as I can. I feel we constantly have to look for new ways of doing things or better ways of approaching problems. To those of you that are students, I say attempt to absorb as much theory and material as you find possible because of its application potential for you in the future. Another important necessary ingredient is a feeling of pride in being in the educational profession. This feeling creates a respect for our fellow teachers and creates the desire to do as much for them as we possibly can.

A final qualification is one that is difficult to express. There are times when an administrator is confronted with a situation where the best and proper answer is I don't know. There are other times when one would be confronted with a situation where he did not know what was going on—but no one was going to know he did not know. I feel that what I am trying to say is that one must not be hesitant to meet a problem and to do everything in his power to attempt to arrive at a solution. It may be summarized by saying that you must possess confidence in your ability.

What kind of job are we doing in rural Kansas schools? Perhaps there is the feeling that rural Kansas school districts are substandard. I have never felt this. In fact, I serve USD #223 by choice. I have had several opportunities to move to large systems. However, I have chosen the rural area and it was that environment that I wanted my daughters brought up in. Even though we are rural and small, there are advantages. We enjoy a relatively calm situation as far as discipline is concerned. Very little of my time is spent in this area. We live in an area where there is considerable respect for the teacher as well as community schools in general. The end effect of this is that it produces a good educational climate. A second area of advantage is our small class size. We have a condition where teacher can teach. I point to our graduates. We have produced doctors, lawyers, teachers, administrators, veterinarians, successful farmers and small business men. We can also think of skilled craftsmen that have been produced. Perhaps I am egotistical when I say I feel we do quite well. We prepare the student for the professions or vocations as well as to prepare him for the adjustment many have to make when going from rural to urban settings. We also point to the fact that our dropout rate is very low. A dropout is most unusual in the rural area. It would not be fair if I did not allude to problems. We have our deficiencies and problems not found in large districts. Still it is my feeling that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

In conclusion, I close this paper with select words just as I started. The most appropriate word I can develop to describe being an administrator in the rural area is to say that it is a "Challenge".

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Two Sides to Education: Technical & Human

Jack Larson

I am going to share some things with you that I believe. That is what real truth is, what you and I believe. I am not coming to you as an expert, but am simply going to share some truths. You can 'buy' them if you want to do so.

Many administrators did not plan to become administrators. Most start out with other ideas. I became an administrator when I was in the teachers' lounge one day and found that all the teachers had received their contracts. All but me. I made an appointment with Mr. Robinson, the superintendent. He then explained that they wanted me to consider becoming the assistant principal for the junior high. I had never planned to be an administrator. When he offered $5,000, I said, "I'll become one!" That's how I got into administration.

So many people stumble into leadership. Leaders are not really born. Leadership is a social science. We learn how to motivate people to accept leadership, not because they have to, but because they want to.

Many administrators won't use what we know about leadership and apply it to get people to follow them. There are many reasons for this. One, that many of us before we became administrators were 'doers.' We continued being 'doers' after we became administrators. When you are a leader, you can't be a 'doer!' You are a teacher of people. Good leaders learn to use people to facilitate the management situation.

The way you lead is important. The foundation of your leadership, your style and direction is vital and it can determine your success.

There are two ways to lead people. You can make it pleasant or you can make it unpleasant. Sometimes we make it pleasant and when that doesn't work, we make it unpleasant for people. We react personally rather than professionally to situations in management. As part of the Master Teacher I reject making it unpleasant for us to lead people. It is miserable for the people you lead and for the administration. Leadership should be defined as causing others to want to want what you are doing. "Want" is the key word; causing others to want what you are doing. They want, not out of fear, but people fight leadership when it is forced on them.

There are three kinds of leaders: the creators, the maintainers, and the destroyers. A creator helps people get better. People must grow, they do not stand still. We have to help them grow. Professional growth of your staff is of first priority. Your success is related to their success; if they have problems, you have problems. They can't fail without your failing. Everything you expect your teachers to be to their students, you have to be to your teachers.

There are two sides to these responsibilities, the technical side and the human side. Many of us spend too much time on the technical side—making sure the windows are clean, the gum scraped off the bottoms of the chairs . . . It has to be done, but we need to make plans on how to help our staff to develop and improve; help them find ways to motivate students, work with parents and other things which will determine whether you will have a successful school year. The success of a school year depends on those relationships with people. Desks can't teach kids, teachers do. Pencils and supplies won't complain, people will. You must plan and prepare for the human side. As you think about a plan, think about a promise. Can you walk into a new school year and make a promise to your teachers that you will help them be better than what they were last year?

You look at different ways to do it. There can be continuous plans and the inservice days that help you plan are important. You can also get involved with teachers in study groups. There must be some continuous help from management to help people find success in their jobs. Most tend to view management as a position rather than a function. People who view you as a position, soon find you are an obstacle. They use you as an obstacle. They say, "Management keeps us from becoming good teachers." Some even feel things would run smoother without management.

We also need to realize that all professional educators are managers. If a teacher can't go into a classroom and manage, he can't teach. They need management skills just as we need management skills. Teachers want to succeed, but may not know how. If management doesn't help them, who will?

There are five C's, concerns, of administration. They are competency, cooperation, control, communication, and caring. We must be good at what we do. We must have a competent plan for growth, on the technical and the human side. Administration is responsible for the competency of the entire school team. This includes the attitudes, philosophy, and skills necessary for people to find success in teaching. We are the leaders of a school district or a school. We have to provide the leadership skills for the entire team, from custodian to teacher.

We cannot assume that teachers are competent in what they do in every aspect of teaching. Teachers are likely to be more competent in the academic skills of teaching than they are on the human side. A teacher's success depends on how well they relate to their students, parents, and how active they are in the community. We cannot assume that they have all these skills. The human side of teaching is the most difficult side of teaching, in my opinion. Teachers have to have a wide assortment of skills to be successful in the human side of teaching. If they can't relate to people, it's tough for them to be efficient and competent.

You can't lead with cooperation. Staff cooperation is a learned condition, it has to be taught. The best way to teach it is to be cooperative ourselves. We need to communicate the benefits derived from being cooperative. Say a teacher comes and says to you, "I need to talk to you about John. He doesn't bring a pencil to class." You think, "I have this state report due and this to do, and this teacher is worried about a pencil." But what we need to realize is that this is a problem for the teacher. If you ignore that teacher he may say, "that administrator never helps me" and we lose steps in our relationships and cooperation with people. It's hard to keep a perspective. A friend of mine showed me a letter which demonstrates a neat way to encourage people to keep a perspective. The letter went something like this:

Dear Mom and Dad,

I've been in college about ten weeks and I thought I should let you know how I am doing. There are some changes. One, I'm living with a young man. I know you'll like him, even though he's not of our race or religion. Mom and Dad you're going to be grandparents. We are not married yet because I contacted a disease in our relationship and we can't get married until that clears up. Mom and Dad, forget the above. I'm still living in the dormitory, there is no young man, and I'm not pregnant. I'm getting a D in English and I just wanted you to keep a perspective."

We need to keep the perspective, that to that teacher, that student is a problem. We need to look at the things we as administrators do to bring things together in a spirit of cooperation. We need to remember that we, teachers, administrators, custodians, cooks, bus drivers, school board members exist for kids. We need to emphasize this, for it influences how people relate to kids. Kids are important not only in what we teach, but they are good public relations. They go home and tell the good and the bad that goes on in the school.

We need control. Every leader must have control on what happened and what's going to happen within an institution. This does not imply administrative dominance. Control means one must have an awareness, knowledge and skill to be the source or point of reference for staff leadership. Administrators must act in ways which show they assume their administrative duties. Don't give up your leadership. When leadership is given up, the negative emerges.

The fourth one is communication. If you can't communicate, you can't lead. You must communicate, and that doesn't mean a weekly bulletin. Make plans to interact with people. People are a priority, meet with them. By leading you can reduce crisis situations. You will get more support from teachers if you lead. And communication is part of leadership. Treat people professionally and they will respond professionally. Lack of communication can cause a vast majority of teacher-administrator misunderstandings. Little gripes can grow into large problems.

The last C is caring, the biggest part of leadership. If we don't care about the kids, our teachers, and the jobs our schools are trying to accomplish, then I think we are in the wrong profession. We are in an emotional business. We deal with people, and emotions are an important part of their lives. Everyone wants love, help, understanding and sympathy. Your teachers are no exception. They want and need help. Without caring we all become manipulators, and people don't like to be manipulated. A leader who manipulates will not find long term success.

The five C's of administration are being competent in what you do, co-operation, control, communication and caring. These are just a dot in the whole spectrum of management, but they are very important dots.

There are two sides to administration, technical and human. You must plan how you are going to give assistance to people and establish yourself as chief executive officer in your school. It won't happen because someone gave you a title. Develop a rapport that when you go into a teacher's classroom they say, "Hey, he's here to help me!" Remember that professional growth is a process, not an event. It begins on the first day of your career and it never ends. Your teachers won't find success without your help and I hope none fail because you didn't use the power you had to help them. If your teachers are successful, you are successful.

Try and give your teachers too much help. You'll find the rewards for you, your teachers and your students will be fantastic!

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Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education

Larry Thomas

Pawnee Heights School District

School District includes: High School located in Rozel—(9-12) Student enrollment of 68. Grade School located in Burdett—(K-8) 112 students. District population approximately 800.

General Fund Budget—$693,240
Budget Per Pupil—$4,054
Assessed Valuation—$14,041,205
Mill Levy—42.83

There are many problems facing rural school districts. I will discuss what is considered four of the more important problems. They include: Financial, Energy, Teacher Recruitment, and Curriculum.

Financial

At a recent American Association of School Administrators Convention it was pointed out that 32% of the nation's students are in non-metropolitan areas but they receive only 5% of the federal research dollars, 11% of the library and material funds and 13% of the vocational funds. Keeping these figures in mind it is easy to see why rural school budgets are tight and why schools are forming cooperatives to try and build better vocational and curricular programs.

Our school district has taken advantage of several federal programs including CETA, Title I, Career Education, Title III, and just recently filed an application for Title II-B funds. All of the money from the federal government has helped our curriculum program considerably.

It is also wise in the small school district to take advantage of the numerous types of economic investments. Check the state codes as to the kind of investments school districts are able to get involved with and then put your tax collection and other monies that might be able to work for as long as possible for the various revenues possible. We have a CD program in our district and FY 1980 collected $57,508.39 that was deposited in our capital outlay program. This FY we will again deposit most of our money in the capital outlay fund but may insert some of the interest in our food service fund to help cut back the huge transfer we have to make each year to food service.

Finance continues to be a big problem in rural education. If something is not done within the next three to five years with regard to support of education, by the end of the '80s the public schools may have a different look altogether. The concept of support of public schools by the property tax, which is the most popular method used in most states, has to be reviewed and possibly revised.

The cost of education even though we face dwindling enrollments is increasing faster than the enrollments are declining. The area other than energy where costs are going up, which affects us the most, is salaries of all personnel.

Energy

Energy is a big problem facing the rural educator. Many rural districts are already looking at budget cutbacks because of rising energy costs—and their districts will be faced with even bigger problems in this area in the near future. Most of the slow starts in energy conservation have come in very small districts under 300, Pawnee Heights would be in this category.

Not so in our school system though our district spent in FY 1980, 21% less on electricity than it did in FY 1979. This is an even more outstanding figure since everyone knows how electricity rates rise. The savings in kilowatt hours was much greater than that, but I prefer to deal with dollar savings. Our school district has been participating in the Title III Energy Program. We recently received a Technical Assistance Grant for $3,075 for our high school and elementary school. Our district eventually plans on carrying out a project that will over the long haul save our district even more money.

Four things a district must do to aid in the conservation of energy:

1. A commitment by Board of Education and school personnel to energy conservation.
2. Conduct an energy audit.
3. Inspect equipment and facilities (TA report)
4. Evaluate and promote

It is estimated for every dollar budgeted for energy in 1979, the school will need six dollars in 1989.

Recruitment of Teachers

There is definitely a teacher shortage for rural schools. This is primarily due to an image that rural schools are "inferior" and pay low salaries. Another problem in this area rests with colleges and universities as they seem to direct the training program at urban, not rural schools. A recent survey conducted reported that only six higher education institutions in the United States have programs specifically for training students to teach in rural areas.

The problem of sending student teachers to rural schools is a problem that does exist in Kansas. I do feel as if this may be changed in the near future, and one college in Kansas has just recently taken steps in that area.

Teachers in rural districts are sometimes required to teach in areas for which they have not been specifically trained, or to teach too many students at one time. With the increase in mandated programs over the past few years the capacity of some small school staffs are being stretched to the limits.

The public will have to realize that to get quality teachers in these rural schools they will need to continue increasing salaries to be competitive with industry and business. If not, rural schools will face a tremendous teacher shortage from the teacher surplus that we faced in the early and middle 1970s.

There are already shortages in some of the specialty

areas like science, math, special education and vocation education. It is even more marked when you look at the Education Departments' involvement at universities that prepare teachers, and see the fewer numbers of students who are graduating with teaching degrees now compared to the number in the early and middle 1970s.

The problem is compounded further that those who are graduating with teaching degrees are not going into teaching, especially in the specialized areas. The reason for this is that graduates can make as much as 50-100% more in starting salary in industry as compared to teaching.

Our philosophy at Pawnee Heights is to recruit the best teachers possible. We try to recruit young teachers with little or no experience who we feel will be very good teachers, realizing these people may only be with us for two or three years.

Curriculum

A manuscript entitled "Schooling in Isolated Communities" talks about school curriculum for small school districts. This paper indicates there should be:

1. a strong foundation in teaching the basic skills and essential facts
2. an emphasis on practical skills
3. training and self-directed study in the development of initiative
4. a focus on the community
5. an orientation to familiarize students with the outside world and
6. attention to future of students.

The challenges being created for those of us who administer small school districts is to provide curricular offerings that meet the changing needs and social demands for young people. The opportunity exists in rural education for more individualized education.

To insure that rural students are taught the proper curriculum, the following needs to take place:

1. Administrative Leadership—probably the most important is the role played by the administration. They must provide direction for the board and staff as well as active participation if improvements are to be made.

2. Board Involvement—the Board of Education must be vitally concerned and interested in providing quality education for students if curriculum improvements are to be made. The board must establish the educational goals of the district.

3. Staff Participation—for curriculum improvement to occur, teachers must become involved in the decision-making process.

Although very small at Pawnee Heights we constantly set up committees that involve our district curriculum. Once a year I set up individual meetings with teachers to discuss the schedule, possible additions, deletions or recommendations to our curriculum. We believe their expertise is quite important in our district.

Resource outside the district—For school districts to effectively improve curriculum such resources are absolutely essential.

Citizen as a resource—Advisory committees are an excellent means of learning about how people feel about the school curriculum.

Neighboring schools as a resource—Neighboring school districts may offer programs you don't and have room for several of your students. It would be very hard for rural districts to exist without cooperative for special education. Vocational program cooperatives have also been used in our school district.

Inservice Activities—When the staff, community and board have decided the direction for curricular improvement an inservice plan should be established.

Curriculum involvement will only occur by design, planning, and hard work.

Summary

What about the future for rural education? It would have been hard to predict some of the things that happened in the 1970s and the effect on rural schools.

1. The increase in education for the handicapped.
2. The push for equality for women in schools.
3. The due process movement for students.
4. The back to basics movement.
5. Increase in career education.
6. The declining enrollment.
7. The accountability of education.
8. The increase of teacher power through collective bargaining and political action.

Small school districts in the future must attack problems head first. We will have to take steps to deal with the changes of the community. We have to do this by emphasizing basic skills, especially those contained in reading, writing and math.

Administrators and board members must work together to see that teachers stretch their certificates and educational background to cover subject matter. Small schools should involve parents and community members. School districts must work cooperatively to meet the needs of students. Small districts must be creative. People are reluctant to try new ideas, because they have never been done before.

According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture Rural Research Report, rural education lags behind city and suburban education in virtually all areas. Rural education has less support staff. Rural students are more likely to enroll in school later and complete fewer years of school than urban students. Rural students score lower on national tests and fail to attend college as frequently as city students. However statistics show that people living in rural communities and small towns are the most satisfied with the schools.

I believe there are many advantages to our rural schools. Among them are:

1. According to the latest Gallup Poll of the public's attitude toward public schools, lack of discipline and use of drugs are listed as the two biggest problems. These problems exist in rural schools, but not to the magnitude that exists in larger districts.
2. Rural schools do not have the animosity between teachers and the board of education that bigger districts normally do.
3. School and community spirit and pride is more noticeable in rural schools.

4. Parents, teachers, and students have a greater satisfaction with the school.
5. School attendance is much better in rural schools.
6. The dropout rate is much lower.
7. More individualized curriculum.
8. Vandalism is lower.

What can we do as administrators, teachers, and school board members to improve our schools? Some of the more important are:

1. See the schools and programs to the community.
2. Promote innovative ideas.
3. Get involved with education for the community.
4. Inservice activities for school personnel.
5. Attend meetings and workshops that are of vital interest.
6. Examine other school districts in the area.
7. Challenge school personnel.

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Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education

Wayne Comer

I. Introduction
  A. Definition of rural living.
    1. Rural living is where your neighbors and friends are highly dependable in times of trouble; and if you have no trouble, you can count on them to find some for you.

II. Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education.
  A. Pursuits.
    1. New Ideas for Curriculum Implementation.
      a. Remembering to "push the basics."
        (1.) The 1980 Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward Public Schools shows: 84% of public school parents want schools to teach moral values and moral behavior.
        (2.) 61% of all parents feel that schools do not teach sufficient courses in the basics.
      b. Try innovations in the classroom.
      c. Understand availability and purposes of various federal programs.
      d. Continuous work in meaningful sessions of in-service for staff.
      e. Setting district priorities and upgrading physical facilities.
  B. Problems.
    1. Isolation of rural living.
      a. Attempting to compensate for lack of educational opportunities such as non-availability of museums, planetariums, field trips to industrial firms, etc.
      b. Absence of many cultural opportunities and enrichments such as small and large musical groups, art galleries, and shows.
      c. Lack of educational television channels.
    2. Are rural students "over-involved?"
      a. Everyone has to do everything in school to make the programs click.
  C. Pleasures.
    1. Some quotes from a questionnaire I have just completed in all classes of Kansas High Schools—1-A through 6-A.
      a. Low drop-out percentages.
      b. Little or no vandalism.
      c. Less problems with drugs.
      d. Higher participation in co-curricular activities.
      e. High scores in basics.
      f. Higher percentage of students pursuing "after high school graduation" educational opportunities.
  D. Summarization.

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The Role of Higher Education in Rural Education

Ivan D. Muse

A well known nursery rhyme speaks of the plight of a little old lady who lived in a shoe. She was beset with so many children that she didn't know what to do. In order to eliminate the problem and undoubtedly keep her sanity she gave them some broth and whipped them all soundly and sent them all to bed. The harried housewife's simple solution to a perplexing problem may seem simplistic to many but similar approaches may be observed readily. Colleges of education are a case in point. All too frequently these teacher training institutions handle a myriad of problems and/or tasks with single solutions. Teacher training programs are often the same for each student regardless of major or teaching interest (public, private, business, home, school, etc.). Inservice training for teachers, too often only considered a graduate degree program, is likewise a rigid system built upon a graduate school philosophy of maintaining the "status quo" regardless of the needs of and changes in school operating procedures. Over the decades and unfortunately through the '80s graduate programs will continue to require two consecutive semesters of residency, a set selection of courses that are required or elective, and course work confined to school settings.

The challenges of today and the years to come are indeed complex. A single curriculum will not be best suited to all students. In a most important way, the question needs to be asked of administrators and professors of teacher training institutions as to whether the education offered to their students and to educational personnel in the public and private schools is appropriate as a means of preparing them for the community, students and school that they are in or will enter.

Are communities different? Obviously, they are, based upon uncountable factors ranging from size and geographical location to ethnic makeup and economic potential. A number of universities (approx. 60) discovered that urban and inner-city schools were different and special programs were needed for those teachers who wished to work or did work in these communities. These schools provide specialized training for the urban directed and oriented teacher. Interesting enough, the other end of the community spectrum has been overlooked. Specialized training for rural school teachers is practically nonexistent. A number of college deans are not even aware that differences exist. In an effort to determine how many universities were involved in some specific way in working with rural needs in education the writer received comments of this nature from college professors about the country.

1. Rural programs should be limited to a few institutions.
2. I see no need for our institutions to have such a program.
3. I would not support any such movement on my own campus.
4. I doubt that we could justify a special program.

This attitude may not represent the feelings of most college educators but the fact that few institutions offer courses or workshops specifically designed for those seeking or working in rural schools would at least suggest a definite lack of concern. Most colleges of education will verbally endorse and even proudly point to their efforts to train teachers to individualize instruction and meet the needs of all youth. Unfortunately, many of these schools prepare new teachers to teach primarily in city schools. Graduate courses and workshops are typically planned for the urban teacher and the content of the instruction is focused upon the problems of metropolitan areas.

The inability of higher education to respond to the needs of rural education has analogy in the efforts of western states sheep owners to bring to the attention of legislatures the effects of coyotes' predations upon sheep. Conservationists stress saving the coyote rather than destroying them. Sheep herders point to increased sheep killings as coyote bands increase in numbers. A resultant car bumper sticker reported the viewpoint of the sheep owner, "Eat mutton, 20,000 coyotes can't be wrong." In a similar vein, rural dwellers could readily report, "There's more than coyotes and sheep in the country, in fact, one-third of the population of the United States lives there."

It is very necessary that those involved in higher education understand the unique weaknesses inherent in many rural schools. The problems confronting rural America, such as poverty, substandard housing, deficient medical services and providing quality education are among the most serious in the United States today. A child born in a rural location has approximately one chance in four of belonging to a family whose income is at a substandard level. The rural child, in comparison to the typical urban dwelling youngster, will have fewer opportunities to study in a particular subject area and will have fewer chances to become prepared for post high school experiences.

In addition, the more isolated, rural school youth are not as motivated to continue with post high school education and feel less confident in competing with their urban counterparts. By and large the rural youth of working age have less than one chance in four of finding gainful employment in local communities.

The rural school teacher is beset by many difficulties not often found in the urban schools. Lower teacher salaries, inadequate physical facilities in many schools and living in isolated small communities may present disappointing circumstances to the new teacher. Since most teachers are trained in urban areas they obviously are desirous of remaining in that geographical setting. When new teachers take rural school positions they often do so as a second choice and only intend to stay until they can move to a metropolitan school.

The truly professional educator is desirous of inservice training and the opportunity for continued professional growth. To the rural teacher, professional growth often means the added expense and burden of moving each summer to attend a college campus for course work. The urban teacher, on the other hand, may only need to "cross the street' to receive such training.

The typical city-based school of education does not direct attention to programs that encourage, train and prepare teachers for life in rural schools and communities because the problems and needs that the school observes come from the immediate area. It is obvious too, that for practical reasons, providing teaching experiences for students would be more easily accomplished in nearby larger schools. Following suit, the professors who teach the methods classes and supervise the student teachers have had little exposure to rural experiences and the needs of rural schools.

The Specific Needs of Rural School Districts

Rural schools are similar to metropolitan schools in many respects. Both sections report that finances for schools are continuing to be an increasing and continued problem. The hiring of quality teachers is always a time-diminishing task for rural and urban administrators. Schools also attempt to take advantage of the numerous state and federal grants offered through Title I, IV, Career Education, Right to Read, Gifted Education, CETA, etc. These same governmental agencies issue school requirements that necessitate considerable school effort to reach compliance. In the area of curriculum, all schools need a strong foundation in teaching the basic skills and also in emphasizing practical skills. A focus upon the community and world of work is noted in the escalating school career education programs.

While those areas of concern mentioned above, as well as many others not listed, are priorities of all school districts, the ability to resolve the problems and conditions pose striking differences between the urban and rural systems. Financial shortages affect the rural school more than the urban one. Obviously, the salary paid to school personnel will affect a school district's ability to attract talent and to keep the morale of teaching staffs at a high level. Rural schools cannot offer the kinds of salaries that urban, suburban or larger districts offer. Salary is not the only issue. In making a decision as whether to teach in a rural or metropolitan setting the teachers must consider these conditions:

Rural Factors

1. Few student teachers are able to request and be assigned a small school setting over 40 miles away from the university or college they are attending.
2. Rural teaching is more complicated. Teachers generally teach five to six different preparations each day. Extra curricular assignments (coaching, clubs, civic responsibilities, etc.) are almost always expected.
3. Rural teachers generally have difficulty in securing adequate housing near the school location. Living conditions are generally poorer than urban areas although the rents are usually lower.
4. Inservice experiences are lacking. Extension travel is required to attend inservice workshops. Teachers must move to city areas during summers to work on advanced degrees.
5. Geographic isolation creates conditions of less social activities, fewer health services, higher costs of maintaining household goods and results in higher teacher turnover.
6. Teachers are more apt to be teaching subjects in other than their academic major. They will also be more apt to have multiple grades in one classroom.
7. Specialized classes and programs are more difficult to maintain, staff and conduct creating lack of continuity and added costs to the districts.

Urban Factors

1. Most teacher training programs are in urban areas. Teachers want to work where they have lived and have been successful. Statistics show that most teachers will take a job in the school district where they did their student teaching.
2. Urban teachers average two to four different teaching preparations each day. Extra curricular assignments are not frequent and usually pay some stipend.
3. Urban teachers usually have a varied selection of homes from which to rent or purchase. Usually costs are higher, but so are salaries. Also it is easier for the spouse to find work to supplement the school teacher's income.
4. Inservice training is often conducted in the school district or nearby university. A higher percentage of urban teachers obtain masters' degrees and enter doctoral programs.
5. Location to city center and adjoining service areas provides various cultural and social activities. Medical facilities are readily available as well as ample shopping outlets.
6. Teachers generally teach only in their major.
7. City schools offer many more courses and programs for students. It is not uncommon to find a number of capable high school students taking courses at nearby colleges.

It is apparent from the brief list of school factors listed above that teachers in rural schools require considerable assistance in meeting the requirements of rural living and school employment. New teachers in particular need to be prepared to understand and live comfortably in a rural environment. They must have developed the ability to live happily away from the center of cultural activities which the metropolitan areas provide and to enjoy the satisfaction of associations with the people with whom they will work and play in a very close relationship. The on-the-job rural teacher needs constant reinforcement as to ability and worth. Frequent inservice training is necessary for these teachers to keep abreast of new materials and ideas in the subject areas. The rural teacher cannot gain the necessary experience and skills necessary to maintain competency unless teacher training institutions serve as active, interested agents in promoting rural education.

Higher Education's Role in Improving Rural Education

The past strategy of preparing all teacher trainees with the most recent knowledge in their field, a somewhat similar dose of teaching methods and a limited amount of practice teaching in selected urban schools is not adequate to improve the rural schools in any significant manner. Not only initial training of teachers but follow-up support is indispensable to helping rural students in the learning and growing process.

It is vitally essential that teacher training institutions develop new approaches to teacher education. Teacher education must be responsive to the needs of our educational system, especially the needs of the hundreds of rural school districts located in every part of the United States. The following recommendations are offered as positive directives for helping the rural schools. Collec-

tively, they would represent a broad and aggressive educational reform. Adoption on an individualized item basis would suggest that the college of education is engaged in planning for a brighter future for rural schools.

1. *Rural Education Specialty:* Specialists are in demand in colleges of education today more than ever before. Specialists are advocates for their programs and they are in a position to render invaluable aid to these individuals who work or want experience in their area of specialization. Only specialists can adequately teach reading, engage in program evaluation, initiate career education programs, teach in ghetto schools, work with learning disabilities, or assist rural education. A specialist in rural education would be better able to gain the respect of practitioners in rural schools because he/she would be able to provide leadership in inservice training, curriculum development, state rural education associations, rural education interest groups, etc., as well as encourage and assist in the training of prospective teachers who wish to work in rural schools. A best method of advertising this specialist is to generate new positions, offers, or departments in the college indicating rural education to be a major responsibility. To their credit, at least a half dozen major colleges have recently established rural education centers or designations to indicate a vital concern for rural education.

2. *School-College Relationships:* Training of teachers should take place only partly on campus. The other part should be in selected school districts. Students who are training to be teachers should have a choice of "training centers" that they might attend. It is also not necessary that a training center be located within every driving distance of the college. Studies have indicated that students who live near the location of student teaching will develop an attachment to that area or type of location.

Much can also be gained from enlisting the aid of rural educators. Rural teachers and administrators selected for their skill and ability can easily assume some of the responsibility for supervising the work of the student teacher. The teacher training institution must learn to utilize, in positive and productive ways, the public school system, regional education service agencies, state educational agencies, teacher groups and others within the community interested in the school children and their welfare.

3. *Preservice and Inservice Education:* These two important functions are interrelated and interacting components, yet are too often considered as distinct and unrelated groups. The goal of colleges should be involvement of the training process from preparation extending throughout the career of the educator. Continuous inservice training that is relevant and geared to the needs of the local school staff members should be available. As much as possible this training should be brought to the public school campus. Obviously, as professors leave the university campus and attend rural centers or school districts on a regular basis they will become more knowledgeable and re-educated to the actualities of schooling in the country.

4. *Curriculum Development:* The textbooks currently used by teachers tend to be urban oriented. Rural teachers are required to adapt textual materials to their rural situation. Too often rural schools have had to borrow from their "big brothers" to initiate school programs such as reading, career education, gifted and talented, etc. The university can provide support to the school districts in the development of new "ruralized" materials as well as methods in working effectively with the natural materials found in the local setting. A well integrated curriculum (one that portrays ruralism as a desirable aspect of American life) will serve to help young students develop a proud sense of belonging and of being of equal importance as urban students.

Practical applications of the recommendations are easy to find and do not have to be expensive. Just the attempt of wanting to help rural school educators will bring big dividends in better college/school relationships. Colleges can display a forward direction in supporting rural education through:

—supporting state rural education associations. Such organizations now exist in Oregon, Utah, Iowa and Texas.

—listing the establishment of a director of rural education in the college.

—encouraging frequent meetings among rural school districts, regional service centers and college personnel to discuss rural problems.

—offering master degree and doctoral programs to select groups of rural educators. By doing this the total program emphasis can be upon rural problems. BYU has an intern doctoral program that permits educators to gain residency in two consecutive summer terms rather than leaving a job to return to college for a year.

—supporting teacher exchanges when the college replaces the teachers in a school with their students. The university students gain valuable teaching experiences for a few days in a rural school setting while the regular teachers are free to receive valuable inservice training.

—permitting college students to experiment with teaching by presenting minicourses in rural school locations. Student teacher trainers in biology, home economics, history, etc., prepare a list of presentable topics of interest to school age students. The school teachers select the topics that they would like presented and a schedule for one or two days is constructed. The school district pays for any materials used during the presentations.

—encouraging workshops and conferences for rural educators only. Their meetings can be held on campus and provide credit if desired by the rural teachers and administrators. Too often rural educators attend general conferences and are forced to listen to the large schools talk about their problems. Conferences for rural educators should be jointly planned by the college and local school districts.

—providing support to students who want to student teach in a rural community. This type of endeavor practically insures that the new teacher will want a rural teaching position. The impact of just one student teacher for a semester in a small school can dramatically raise teacher morale and en-

thusiasm of the entire staff. New ideas brought in by the student teacher gain rapid infusion into the teaching staff.

—providing a list of prospective rural teachers to superintendents in small communities. Superintendents will often travel many miles to interview teachers and find that those teachers main desire is to locate in an urban area but that they will teach in a rural school if nothing else opens. Needless to say, the teacher who wants to teach in a rural setting usually has no difficulty in finding a position but they often need assistance in being directed to available openings.

Rural educators will gladly accept any help that they can in making the rural school a better learning environment for the child. It is the role of higher education to support the rural schools in preparing school personnel who are effective and can continue to make worthwhile contributions.

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Higher Education and Rural Youth

Ronald G. Downey

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the factors which could and do influence rural students' attitudes towards attendance and performance in higher education. As a prelude to determining these factors, it is important to identify the potential sources of influence. Specifically, I will be looking at three major influence factors: general social environment, family background, and educational background. Another potential source of influence which I have *not* considered is genetic, since it does *not* seem to be reasonable that any genetic differences exist for rural youth (e.g., intelligence). While I will tend to talk of these factors as separate influences, it should be recognized that they all interact with each other and, in fact, form the environmental network where rural youth grow up and mature.

In preparing this paper, I have attempted to identify salient features of the aforementioned factors and their potential impact on the performance of rural youth in higher education. I should also make it clear that I will be concerned with the modal response of rural students and not how any single individual may or may not perform before and during their higher education experience.

In examining the features which impact upon rural students, one outstanding feature can be identified; that is, the smallness of the social systems within which rural youth develop. Small social systems tend to have some rather dramatic impacts upon the social behavior and performance of rural youth. (The information below was taken from Barker and Gump, 1964; Barker, 1968; and Downey, 1978.) Specifically, students from smaller rural schools tend to engage in a variety of programs and tend to maintain their program activities in the face of adversity. Also, students from smaller schools tend to engage in a variety of leadership activities, choose difficult tasks and important tasks, and tend to persevere in their activities.

Contrary to the popular view, students from smaller schools tend to be less sensitive and evaluative of the differences that they find in other students. Perhaps an example is in order to explain this phenomenon. In a small school in which only a limited number of individuals are available to participate in sports activities, individuals with limited skills are valued by their very presence alone and are not required to be superstars.

Rural youth often find themselves in positions of greater responsibility and more functional utility and, therefore, often find themselves experiencing greater insecurity due to their being thrown into areas and activities in which they feel less than competent. This greater degree of social participation leads to a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment with doing rather than watching. Also, rural youth tend to be absent less often from social activities, tend to persist in jobs and positions, and to a greater degree, are punctual. This greater degree of participation and activity in social groups leads to different attitudes on the part of rural youth towards work and social roles. Generally, they tend to think their work is more important, tend to take broader roles, have greater skills in social communication, have a greater sense of group cohesiveness, and find their work more meaningful.

To quickly summarize, youth in smaller schools (versus bigger schools) tend to participate more often in social activities, have positive attitudes towards this participation, and tend to be more effective. What, then, is the impact of this background upon their behavior and performance in higher education?

Before discussion this impact, one must recognize that institutions of higher education in the United States are very heterogenous (e.g., they vary in size, social structure, mission, level, place, and so on). Clearly, the experiences of a rural youth in a local community college will differ dramatically from those of an individual in a large, urban, non-residential college. For those rural youth who decide to remain at home and attend a local community college, these social experiences will enable them to continue to perform adequately in their present social environment. For those individuals who decide to go to a large, urban, commuter university, these same social skills may well be disfunctional and lead to a variety of inappropriate and dissatisfying experiences. For those individuals who decide to attend land-grant and state university systems, these experiences may be somewhat different. Most land-grant and state universities exist in small metropolitan or town environments. They are primarily residential in character (i.e., the students reside in dorms and on campus), and they engage in a variety of academic and social experiences for the students. Therefore, of the three types of universities which I have enumerated, the land-grant and state university systems are more likely to require social interactive skills for their student bodies. Also, it should be noted that research (Downey, 1980) had indicated that students who become involved in academic and social activities tend to persist until graduation in these universities. The issue, therefore, becomes the degree to which rural youth, who were raised in a social environment which required active and continuous social involvement, can exist in a larger social system which may require more passive and observational modes of social interaction.

The weight of the evidence would strongly suggest that rural youth can make this accommodating effort. They, in fact, can change from active participatory social interaction to a more inactive, observational mode. This change in role behavior is required by the larger numbers of potential participants in social activities at institutions of higher learning and therefore is required of most students in this context.

A social factor which I have not discussed to this point is the occupational role models that rural youth encounter (ACT, 1974). In rural and small-town environments, the numbers of individuals in varied occupational roles tend to be limited. There is an underrepresentation of individuals in high technology areas (e.g., communications), individuals in artistic endeavors (a concert pianist), and individuals in a variety of social service areas (e.g., a psychologist). With these statements, I do not intend to suggest that there are not appropriate role models for rural youth in terms of occupational goals; only that there is a degree of limitation engendered by the smaller social/occupational environment. Certainly the pervasiveness of mass communications would, to some degree,

modify these limitations and expand the views that students have of potential occupations.

What, then, may be the effects of this limitation? To some degree, one would expect and find that rural youth, upon entering higher education, have more limited views of the occupational opportunities that exist and would select from the areas with which they are most familiar. As they proceed through college, rural youth would therefore be expected to engage in more frequent changes in their majors and to have a greater sense of insecurity in their choices as their occupational views are expanded from their interactions with faculty and students. Since more than three-quarters of an entering student body changes their educational and occupational goals before graduation, changing is a natural event for the majority of college students.

To the degree that students perceive the incompatibility of their particular occupation and return to their rural environment, they will evaluate these occupations in a different light.

The second major category that I am going to discuss that may impact upon rural youth and their success in high education is their family background. A quick review of biodemographic information (U.S. Census, 1972) on rural versus urban families indicates a variety of dimensions upon which they may differ. These dimensions include the mother's and father's occupation, education, and finances. A similar subset of family background factors has been found to be important in predicting persistence of students in college (Astin, 1976). Specifically, the general socio-economic level of a student's family is a contributor, albeit minor, to the student's chances of remaining in an institution of higher learning. The educational background of the student's mother and father are contributors to this persistence; specifically, the degree to which the mother or father has a college degree contributes positively to the student's persistence in college.

Research has determined that students who have lived on a farm, lived in a small town, or lived in a moderate sized city are more frequent drop-outs than individuals from larger, metropolitan areas. If we examine this research in depth, it may well be an artifact of certain student tendencies. Most students attend an institution of higher learning which is near their place of residence. To the degree that rural students attend smaller institutions and/or state institutions and do not attend metropolitan institutions, and vice versa, and to the degree these institutions may differ in their retention rates, then these statistics which were based on comparisons throughout the United States may be misleading. That is, if a student who attends a state university has a greater chance of not surviving in that state university than a metropolitan student who attends a metropolitan university, clearly the variable of interest is not the place of residence but the institution. Support for this thesis can be found in a variety of research projects conducted at Kansas State University (Downey, 1978, 1980). When the persistence rate for students from various sized high schools was compared, little if any effect was found. Further, there were few if any differences in the performance of students from rural versus metropolitan areas. This would tend to suggest that within a single institution, few if any differences exist between students from rural versus metropolitan areas in terms of their academic performance or persistence.

The third and final influence upon the performance of rural youth in higher education is their education preparation in high school. The data we will primarily be dealing with was provided by the ACT office and Don Davis here in Manhattan, Kansas (ACT, 1974). The information comes from the ACT test and the questionnaire items. It is clear when one looks at the ACT scores of students from rural versus larger high schools that there are ACT differences in all areas. Similar differences exist for both males and females, and for students from different high school curriculum areas. Differences for all ACT areas are approximately one to two points on the average. These are statistically significant results, but the practical significance must be questioned. It should be apparent that the vast majority of rural and urban students make similar ACT scores. One would expect and find similarly small differences would exist at the university level.

The results for self-reported high school grades are not quite as clear. In the data from ACT, rural students tend to report slightly lower grades in all academic areas reported (i.e., math, English, social studies, and natural science). These differences cease to exist if you look further at students who have taken college preparatory courses. Further, in data that I collected at Kansas State University, students from rural schools tended to have a slightly higher self-reported GPAs than those from urban areas, suggesting that a self-selection process occurs for students from college-bound programs and students who decide to attend institutions of higher education. The results of this self-selection are to weed out students with lower high school grades. These self-selection processes to not seem to effect achievement test scores.

There is evidence that rural youth generally have lower aspirations, are *not* sure of their goals in academic areas, and predict lower performance for themselves in college. It would appear, on the surface, that those students who have lower aspirations and are not sure of their goals tend not to apply for entrance to higher education.

In addition to the students' lower performance in high school, rural youth tend to have a slightly different level of satisfaction with their high school experiences. Specifically, rural youth are less satisfied with the variety of courses offered, the rules and regulations of the high school, the school's library, their lab experiences, the programs for academically outstanding students, and programs that provide career counseling. On the other hand, rural youth versus urban youth are satisfied with the grading practices and testing procedures, and no differences existed for their satisfaction with the type of instruction. To sum it up, rural youth tend to feel that their high school programs were less adequate.

If one examines these perceptions, one can see that the students' dissatisfaction tends to center upon peripheral types of programming. Smaller high schools can ill afford the resources required to provide programs of general counseling, guidance, library facilities, and laboratory facilities. Also, they are less adequately equipped and staffed in programs for the academically outstanding. Therefore, one could suspect rural youths' perceptions of their high school environment are correct.

What, then, is the expected outcome of these aforementioned differences in high school achievement and perception? Studies or rural students' performance in higher education are scanty, to say the least. As I have mentioned, I have conducted studies looking at differences in college achievement and retention for rural

versus urban students. Similarly, ACT differences existed for rural students attending Kansas State University. Specifically, rural youth were lower in all ACT areas. On the other hand, rural students attending Kansas State University tended to have higher self-reported high school grades. The selection factor which seems to operate is one where students from rural environments attending higher education tend to come from college preparatory programs, tend to have higher levels of expectations, and tend to be more secure in their academic goals. Of those students who survive four academic semesters at Kansas State University, no differences in grade point between rural and urban students exist. Four semesters seems to be an appropriate point for checking their performance, since students who survive four semesters tend to remain in college until graduation. The number of students who survive four semesters tends to be similar across all levels of high school size. This study would suggest that, low ACT not withstanding, the rural students performed as well as urban students and remained in college at a similar rate.

From the information presented to this point, it appears that rural youth are not at a disadvantage in attending institutions of higher education of certain types or sizes. As I mentioned before, there is a tendency for rural youth to be somewhat different in their selection patterns from urban youth. It would appear that in choosing an institution of higher education, rural youth are maximizing their strong points. Specifically, rural youth may be realistic in projecting their successes in higher education. Success in institutions of higher learning is made up of a variety of factors including academic preparedness, aspiration level, social and academic involvement, and occupational goals. There is evidence that rural youth may enter institutions of higher learning slightly ill prepared in terms of their high school background; however, they more than compensate for these difficulties because they have higher levels of aspiration, are better prepared socially to deal with college activities, and are better able to identify and pursue clear goals.

I should caution you that all of the information that I have spoken to you about to this point deals with groups. Any single individual could break these group norms. Particularly, some rural youth do not enter higher education with clear goals; others will make poor choices in terms of the institution of higher education they attend. Still others, high ACT scores not withstanding, will find themselves with academic problems. There is little in the evidence I have discussed to this point to suggest anything other than slight caution, in dealing with rural youth, in their chances for success in higher education.

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Federal Role in Rural Education

Tom Schultz

I am going to break my talk into three parts. The first one being what the present role of the federal government is in education, second, the emerging questions about the federal role and finally, about what we should do.

The federal government spends about 13 billion dollars in education, which makes up 8 or 9% of the total budget for public education. When the federal government began to get involved in education in 1963, they were contributing about 4% of the total budget. Through passage of Title I, their share jumped from 4 to 8%.

Since the late '60s the federal share has not increased; it has stayed at about 8 or 9%. Public attitude about the federal role is that the government has passed many more laws and yet has not picked up the greater share of the budget.

It is important to look at how the programs are structured. Basically the federal aid to education is called the categorical program structure. There are 120 programs that the 13 billion dollars are divided into. Most concern a particular kind of student or problem that the federal government wants to play a role in rectifying. The basic assumption and goal behind federal programs concerns the equating of access for various student groups and populations.

There is the assumption that there is one solution to the problem that is identified. There are few programs designed especially for rural districts. There is the assumption a single solution for a single type of student category can be addressed in a similar mandate. An example is the emphasis in Title I in setting up programs to guarantee that funds are being used for students eligible for such programs. This has given rise to pull-out programs. Where Title I kids are taken out of the regular classroom and given separate instruction, the question is, is that the best instructional process? There have been suggestions to consolidate programs in different areas and I feel we will see increasing effort in this area.

In looking at the regulations and the structure of these programs they could result in changes which would make life simpler for the rural administrator and allow the existing federal funds to be more efficiently used. But this won't be a quick process.

In closing, there was a conference in Washington called The Federal Role In Rural Education. There was an ambivalence in the group about what the federal government ought to do. People agreed that up until now the government hasn't paid any special attention to rural districts. Some were enthused and said federal government should develop programs for the rural districts. Other said, "No, stay out of our hair." The federal government can help with research on national questions; such things as what works well, is successful in rural districts.

There is also the need for a federal role in supporting the development of rural programs at the local level. Most of the development of rural programs was not done in rural districts by rural people. There needs to be small amounts of money given to rural people to develop programs that make sense for them.

The federal government can help the supporting of communication way across the board.

These three facts, concerning federal role, are important. They are (1) the government pays about 10% of the bill, (2) the programs are structured on a categorical basis, and (3) the assumption that the problems can be solved in a generic way.

In terms of rural districts, these have particular implications. One is that you are not going to get a large amount of budget assistance from the federal government. Secondly, the structure is designed in a way that is not helpful to rural districts. It is hard to develop a program for the different types of students in small school districts mainly because of the small numbers of such students; this is common in rural districts. There are also programs which need to be developed especially for rural districts.

There are two main issues which will be addressed by Congress over the next few years. One is the area of program regulations, and the other is the area of program consolidation. First we'll look at federal regulations.

The federal government has the habit of setting up mandates but not providing any money. This may be because the appropriations for the program have not reached the limits that were established when the legislation was set in place. There are other regulations that do not carry any funding, but have a great burden, a cost on districts. As an example we have Title 9, where the government says you must change, but does not provide funds.

There is a conflict concerning federal regulations and their impact on districts. The proposed bilingual regulations are an example. Here we have the federal government deciding on the approach, but some people feel local districts should develop their own approach. Is the federal role appropriate, or are they going beyond what would be appropriate?

While each one of the regulations may seem appropriate, when you look at the cumulative impact it is unmanageable. Each program officer in the Department of Education goes about developing regulations on their own and tries to do something reasonable. But there is never a look at the burden being imposed by them as a group. Do the best results come from the government taking a regulatory approach as opposed to other kinds of approaches? Using the regulatory approach you can get paper enforcement. But you may not get what you want in the end, in terms of changes in behavior or outcomes for children.

Improvements of programs come about from factors which can or have nothing to do with regulations imposed from the outside. It deals with local commitments, planning, and enthusiasm. Regulations do not bring any of this into play. I do not foresee drastic or immediate changes in regulations and the filling out of forms etc., but people are looking into it.

People are also beginning to look at the programs, asking such things as "Is this really getting us what we want? Is it economical?"

Then we come to a point and must consider how does a building principal or classroom teacher put together an instructional program that makes sense, given these dif-

ferent sources of funds and between rural communities, rural educators? People need to be put in touch with one another, people who share an interest in common problems. This would be a federal role of coordination.

Rural educators have to get together and develop an agenda that they can agree on themselves. The biggest question being whether the federal government ought to do more or less. Rural educators must get involved in the debate determining the developing of rural policy. This is difficult and costly to go to Washington or Kansas City whenever hearings occur, to take time out from regular district duties and responsibilities. But it is needed and it is important. Rural educators, rural people must work together.

Tom Schultz is the Rural School Team Leader of the National Institute of Education in Washington, D.C.

The Role of a Regional Educational Laboratory in Rural Education

Paul Nachtigal

The mission of Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory is to improve educational practice in the region, with particular attention to improvements that benefit those who traditionally have received a poorer quality education than the general population. The primary (thought not exclusive) intended beneficiaries of McREL's work are minorities, the handicapped, those teachers in small, isolated schools, or rural schools, and women. These groups as a whole are underrepresented in educational leadership positions, do more poorly in school, and are generally the most affected by deficiencies in the educational system.

To achieve this mission, the Laboratory employs strategies for increasing and improving the use by practitioners of research and experience-based knowledge. We have three strategies for doing this. The first involves knowledge dissemination and utilization. Dissemination refers to the transfer of knowledge and utilization to the application of knowledge in policy and practice settings. To operationalize dissemination and utilization for practice improvement, McREL seeks out relevant research and experience-based knowledge, transforms it into operational forms (e.g., information products, training) which conform to local conditions, delivers those forms to practice settings, and supports the use of those forms by practitioners.

The second and third strategies, knowledge generation and human development, are important auxiliaries to dissemination and utilization. Knowledge generation involves research or knowledge transformation activities by which three types of new knowledge are produced: knowledge about education processes, knowledge about dissemination and utilization processes, and knowledge about situational (i.e., local and regional) conditions. New knowledge about effective educational practice and knowledge about dissemination and utilization approaches are continually needed to plan improvements and guide processes to effect those improvements; information about local and regional conditions is necessary for knowing what knowledge is relevant (i.e., what improvements are needed) and for tailoring dissemination and utilization efforts to those conditions.

The human development strategy for supporting dissemination and utilization involves increasing the capabilities of individuals and organizations to receive and use knowledge for practice improvement. This strategy has a double effect: it not only mediates the increased use of knowledge by those whose capabilities to use it are improved, but it directly benefits the individuals involved by providing for their professional development. Further, it makes them better able to serve their constituents.

The approach used by the Laboratory to carry out its mission reflects a strong belief that whatever is accomplished must be done with, not to, others in the region. The rationale for this belief is two-fold; first, research has clearly demonstrated that practice improvements depend for their success on a feeling of ownership on the part of those who must implement them. They must be participants in change, rather than targets for change, especially where the change is complex and large-scale. Second, since our resources and influence are quite limited, viewed against the size and complexity of the educational community, we need to combine our resources and efforts with those of others in the region with similar objectives.

Consistent with McREL's broader mission, our activities in rural education will be designed to improve rural education in both policy and practice settings, generating knowledge as needed to support those activities. Listed below are several areas in which we plan to concentrate these efforts:

A. The development of policy/practice alternatives for rural schools both in response to state-specific problems and for the purpose of developing new models of rural schooling,

B. The collection of data for the purpose of supporting action activities while at the same time adding to our general knowledge about rural education in the region,

C. The dissemination and testing of policy alternatives, and,

D. The testing of approaches for improving rural education.

A few examples of specific activities through which the Laboratory hopes to contribute to the improvements of education in rural schools during the next two years include the following:

1) Assisting a State Department of Education in the examination of the issues of equal educational opportunity in small school districts,

2) Working with a state university in the development of a program to improve administrative leadership in rural schools.

3) Conducting a study of the impact of school finance laws in the small rural school as the basis for developing guidelines for funding quality small school programs,

4) Conducting a study on rural community social structure as the basis for further examination of rural community characteristics,

5) Working with several regional universities in the development of school improvement strategies for small rural schools. These strategies will build on the strength of small size and the accessibility of resources available in small communities,

6) Assisting several state education agencies is the design of more effective data bases and processes for increasing knowledge about rural education,

7) Cooperating with local and state leadership in several states to implement rural forums de-

signed to encourage public discussion of policy alternatives related to rural education,

8) Assisting with the development and implementation of rural school improvement consortia involving one or more rural schools, a neighboring institution of higher education and the Laboratory for the purpose of field testing alternative improvement strategies for small schools.

Paul Nachtigal is a Rural Education Specialist for Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory in Denver Colorado.

Political Action In Rural Education

Roger Baskerville

February 3, 1977, changed the course of my life. I won't contend that it was a permanent change. I won't even say that it 'bettered' my 'lot' in life. All I know is that, once again, I became a 'political animal' destined to become involved in People United for Rural Education (P.U.R.E.) From a tiny band of concerned, rural citizens gathered in the Iowa Senate on a cold February evening, we have emerged as a dues-paying 'volunteer' organization numbering approximately 3,000 members. P.U.R.E. constituents are found in 234 schools in 23 states and 3 foreign countries. As State Advisor for P.U.R.E. I have traveled 23,000 volunteer miles across Iowa helping to form local People United for Rural Education chapters. I have taken our message wherever anyone would listen. I have spoken in gymnasiums, lunchrooms, cow lots, barns, restaurants and private homes. I have addressed conventions, educational fairs, workshops, seminars, professional gatherings, the State Board of Public Instruction, the State Budget Review Committee and an Iowa Legislative Investigation Committee. I have testified on the credibility of rural education and our fight for survival in Miami, San Francisco, Washington, D.C. and in the State Supreme Court Chambers of Columbus, Ohio. In other words, I'm exhausted. I'm never home. My wife left me, my kids don't remember me, the dog bites me when I come in the door, and the cat resigned to start an anonymous fertility clinic. But first things first. You see, I despise 'politics.' Whenever anyone asks our political affiliation I tell them I'm a Republican, the wife's a Democrat, the kid's wet, the cow's dry and the cat's a populist.

The very essence of the word 'political,' denotes 'shrewdness,' 'sagaciousness,' 'artful, often dishonest practices,' and 'competition.' Those descriptions are from Webster. I didn't invent them. Don't get me wrong; I have absolutely nothing against sagacity, shrewdness, art, and yes, I can spell 'dishonest.' It's the 'competition' thing that bothers me. It's damn hard to be competitive, and win when you're always the underdog; when you're always representing the educational interests of a truely viable minority called *Agrarians,* better known as 'rural folk' to those enlightened urban intellectuals sitting among us this morning.

Involved in politics once again! I promised myself, following an excursion in Uncle's Army (1969-70) that I would never, ever again become the passionate, concerned visionary I once imagined myself to be, losing sleep and gaining ulcers over issues. I even volunteered for the Army. My lottery number was 352. While an English major graduate student at the University of Nebraska in 1968 I watched a group of NROTC Cadets marching by. That did it. You see, I'm a rural boy. I was raised with a loyalty to God and Country. (I'm still loyal to God and Country, but the Nebraska Cornhuskers now receive equal time for my loyalist activities.) Anyway, I went with all due speed to the Federal Building in Lincoln, Nebraksa, and volunteered my services to the cause. I'll never forget the look on Staff Sergeant Zachary Wheat's face.

"You being drafted, kid?"

"No Sir. My number is 352 and I want to enlist."

"Whatsa matter, kid, you runnin' a fever?"

"No Sir! I want to serve my country. Mine is the profession of arms, the will to win, the sure knowledge that in any war there is no substitute for victory, that if we lose the very nation will be destroyed, that the very essence of my public service must be honor, duty . . . "

"Yeah, yeah kid. Fine, fine." Wheat choked down the rest of his Twinkie and unwrapped a Ho-Ho. "Hey, Corporal Barnes, c'mere! Get a load of the Section 8!"

To make a long story short, and several sanity tests later, I was allowed to join the Army. In basic training our company was asked by a Drill Sergeant if any one in the group had a college education. Two of us held up our hands. He said "O.K., you guys get out here and pick up these cigarette butts. The rest of you dummies watch; you might learn something."

That's why I lost my interest in politics. Multiply that one element of the human comedy by 800 days and it won't take too long to realize the sum of the final product; disillusionment with the system. How can it be fought? How does one stand up and not only be counted and heard, but listened to as well?

I previously said that "once again, I became a 'political animal.' " Let me briefly explain my prior experience in the 'arena.' My grandparents lived on the same farm as my parents; approximately 50 yards from our house. I really grew up with two sets of Moms and Dads. (I also grew up with six meals a day.) The interesting part, though, is that for years my Mother was chairperson of the Calhoun County Republican Women, and Grandmother was chairperson for the Calhoun Democratic Women. *Mon Dieu.* You talk about war! Every two years the shared clothesline became, virtually, a no-man's land. The editorial page of the daily paper was either the gospel or the funnies, depending, of course, on whose house you happened to be in at the moment. Mom always said that not all Democrats were horse thieves; just that all horse thieves were Democrats. And my Grandmother always voted for the man, she contended, regardless of his race, creed, nationality or status in the Democratic Party.

Politics: That's what P.U.R.E. is all about. From 16 people with a common goal and purpose (the survival of our schools and the promotion of rural as a viable, credible way of life) to 3,000 people with volunteer lobbyists in Des Moines *and* Washington, D.C. We *have* been effective. We have sponsored, and won, amendments to the financial formula. We have successfully assisted other 'special' interest groups in gaining legislative support. But for every time P.U.R.E. has succeeded, we have been rebuked and rebuffed and rebutted. Originally we argued back with good old fashioned 'emotion.' We cried 'identity!' They countered with 'is it good for the children?' We yelled 'motherhood!' They replied 'gender.' We shouted 'apple pie!' They implied 'sour grapes.' We have screamed 'but it isn't fair!' They have smirked 'objectivity.'

For years legislative leaders and educational headmasters within the state of Iowa have told enlightened proponents of rural education that educational values cannot be argued "emotionally." We must be 'objective' in charting the future of Iowa schools." Educators and lay citizens were literally besieged with reports, studies, data,

significant percentages, correlations, norms, means, medians, transactional analyses, assumptions, null hypotheses, rejections and acceptances at predetermined alpha levels, control groups, experimental groups, cost efficiency studies, centralization studies, program deficiency reports, educational modes and models of all shapes and sizes, and conclusions ranging from the unthinkable to the unintelligible.

Like good debaters, rural citizens complied. Rural-biased research now matches urban-biased research. A 'significant' counterpoint has been established for every researched contention; on both sides of the issue.

As the studies have grown more voluminous, however, so have the 'emotions' and/or 'opinions' of well-intentioned social scientists and educational researchers trying to 'drive home' a logical point of 'common sense;' (or perhaps *un*common sense?). In striving to detect a light at the end of the "where-will-it-all-end" tunnel, I have found it next to impossible to divorce 'emotionalism' from any study or report dealing with that intangible term, EDUCATION. Every morsel, every tidbit, every aspect of education which touches a life evokes an emotion. In some, this emotion is more readily observable; in others it bubbles, flows, or resides below the visible surface. Denial of this 'opinion' or 'emotion' being inherent within a human to human learning/teaching situation would lead one to question whether students are flesh and blood recipients of knowledge, or mechanical learning devices. It only seems logical to assume that when people teach other people, a certain degree of emotionalism or opinion will become a significant part of the learning process. And, if my learned colleagues will forgive this rather humble attempt at syllogistic reasoning, do not human emotions, derived through learning processes, invariably lead to the formulation of human attitudes? If this conclusion is acceptable, what we really have is a study on attitudes, human attitudes formulated through, and by, human emotions. Therefore, let us surmise that learned emotions invariably produce learned attitudes which often dominate, or at least influence, human reasoning.

The reversal of urban attitudes concerning rural schools and rural communities has become one of P.U.R.E.'s most difficult political tasks. Major mediums of news conveyance and editorialization are more often than not based in heavily populated, urban areas. It becomes easier for urban sources to relay the faults of rural areas since urbanites have the major media voice at their disposal. Rural people, inherently, do not have the same major voice of news/opinion/editorialization. Who, then, has the upper hand in formulating attitudes among all people, both rural and urban? People believe what they read; they believe what they hear. If rural citizens have lived with the constant media reminder that small is bad, inefficient, uneconomical, resource poor, and, through inference, incomparable to urban-produced, urban-based models of all shapes and sizes, including education, then rural people, through no fault of their own, will start to believe what they read; and what they hear. Magnify and multiply urban-produced and induced attitudinal 'mind-sets' of several decades and generations, and those who are self-professed proponents of 'rural' as a way of credible, viable, and often-times superior lifestyles, do indeed face a monumental task in reversing well-established, urban-based attitudes.

Nowhere are these urban-based attitudes more evident than in the printed media. The so-called "inefficiency" and "ineptness" of rural schools has literally jumped off the pages of daily tabloids. Urban readers click their tongues in an "I told you so fashion," and thereby reinforce their ideas of "small" and "rural," while once again the point is driven home to rural readers, like so many nails pounded in flesh, that what they are a part of has once again been cited as inferior, inefficient, and educationally inequitable. For decades rural people have waited for the inevitable 'ax' to fall. They have been reminded time and again that small is bad and economically inefficient. Rural people have been constantly informed that their K-12 institutions were program poor and therefore, through simple deduction, incapable of providing the same high quality of education afforded urban institutions. Yet many rural schools continued to produce a high quality graduate capable of competing with urban graduates in the professions and in the day-to-day work force. The media, however, bent on freeing Iowa and other rural states of their "smallness" and "inefficiency" continues to hammer away at the "inferior" rural school systems. It only stands to reason, analogously that an individual is periodically reminded on a statewide, national basis that he or she is indeed ugly, a negative attitude toward oneself will more than likely ensue. As the great contemporary cowboy-philosopher Will Rogers once stated, "All I know is what I read in the papers." Unfortunately the same holds true for both rural and urban readers. Lay citizens, those not professionally involved with the daily business of education, have started to believe that rural schools are incompetent, incapable of providing quality education. "Small" has been equated with "inferior." Numbers have suddenly become important in providing quality education.

But small, rural schools are not inefficient. They merely begin with a smaller slice of the pie. If anything, rural schools have had to be more fiscally efficient in order to provide required courses and the many electives which the great majority of small schools still offer. The one big question still left unanswered is, "what constitutes 'quality?' " Are a myriad of courses and program offerings, quality? If so, then large schools do provide quality. Or is individual attention, individual participation, providing for individual needs dispositions, and a daily one-to-one, repetitive human-to-human contact, quality? If so, the pendulum swings back to the smaller schools.

What can the average lay citizen do? Attitudes have been established by major media voices. 'Small' is inefficient; 'small' is bad. "What choice do we really have?" is a cry heard more and more. One of the answers, obviously, is contingent upon reversing the attitudes of those educational constituents who have slowly evolved into the thought-pattern of equating 'small' with 'poor.'

As a superintendent of a rural school I have discovered the following: That programs cannot be cut and still maintain a quality K-12 program; state aid to rural schools is minimal and local property tax efforts usually at a maximum are still climbing; consolidation is *not* economically advantageous. Speaking as a superintendent, how do we handle these discoveries? James Coleman *et al.* has commented that, "because small, rural schools are less complex and more manageable institutions, it is possible that they would have an inherent advantage in efficiently utilizing the resources that they do possess." Speaking as a superintendent of a rural school, I concur.

This then, becomes the central political thrust of

P.U.R.E.; to let our state legislators and State Department of Public Instruction officials know that our small, rural schools are efficient, but that we will need help if we are to continue this efficiency. We have already been financially 'cut to the bone.' The only way to cut us further is to 'cut into the bone,' and if that happens, there will ultimately be no support on which to stand; financial *or* moral.

Margery Thompson, Associate Editor of the *American School Board Journal,* has adequately summarized the main thrust and intent of my address delivered here today. From her article entitled "A Lot We Can Learn from Those Not-So-Second-Rate Rural Schools" I have quoted the following paragraph as a means of illustrating the point we are trying to 'drive home' to the Iowa Legislature; that rural schools are efficient, creative, resourceful and worthy of the support necessary for continuance.

> What makes rural schools different is the way they solve their particular problems. Because rural schools have long suffered from a lack of money, their boards and administrators have for years learned to make do with what they have—as city and suburban school staff now must learn to live with restricted budgets. Because rural teachers and principals in isolated schools are thrown largely on their own resources, they have learned to plan and adapt materials for their own students—just as policy-makers now suggest city and suburban school staffs do.

Ladies and Gentleman, allow me to conclude with the closing remarks of my February 1980, "The State of P.U.R.E. Address" to People United for Rural Education's Third Annual Conference held in Des Moines, Iowa. "The founder of a highly successful company was asked what it took to succeed. 'The same thing it took to get started,' he replied, 'a sense of *urgency* about getting things done.' The people who make things move in this world share the sense of urgency. No matter how intelligent or able you may be, if you don't have this sense of *urgency, now* is the time to start developing it. The world is full of very competent people who honestly intend to do things tomorrow, or as soon as they get around to it. Their accomplishments, however, seldom match those of the less talented who are blessed with a sense of the importance of *getting started now.*

My friends, we must start now—we must start again. We must build People United for Rural Education into a strong, vibrant unified voice capable of being heard throughout the land! Rural people *must* stand up and be counted in the thousands. PURE members *must* be urgent in their cause. It is not too late—not yet. Carry the P.U.R.E. message back to your communities. Push for involvement. Let us strive to show all concerned that People United for Rural Education is on the move, incessantly, in this predominantly rural state. And, I might add, that also includes the great state of Kansas.

Roger Baskerville is the Superintendent of Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, Iowa.

The Role of Interest Groups in Rural Education

John W. Koepke

The role of any particular education interest group in Rural Eucation varies greatly depending on the perception of the particular interest group as to its role in the total educational program. The role of interest groups with individual members—i.e., teachers and administrators—tends to be a lesser role, with greater emphasis placed on the welfare of individual members, regardless of their location. A greater role in rural education is played by groups which have public bodies as a part of their constituency, such as school board associations, government agencies and universities.

In determining what the role of various interest groups is in rural education, it is interesting to note the varying definitions of what constitutes rural education. With the exception of the four largest districts in Kansas, most national organizations would tend to regard all other Kansas school districts as involved in rural education. Several years ago, the National School Boards Association asked a Kansas school district with over 2,000 students to make a clinic presentation on "How to Improve Curriculum in a Small School District."

Within Kansas itself, school districts have had some difficulty in determining what constitutes a "small" or "rural" district. Part of this difficulty stems from the perception of most Kansans that ours is essentially a rural state and a natural desire on the part of most of our citizens to associate themselves with what they see as a desirable social structure with its roots in the rural economy. Several years ago, a group of school boards formed the Large District Forum within the Kansas Association of School Boards. By definition, this group was to include the 30 largest school districts in the state. However, several eligible districts have consistently refused to participate in this organization because they do not consider themselves large or "urban" districts.

By the same token, a separate organization of "small" school districts, Schools for Quality Education, has not enjoyed the participation of a number of school districts that would be considered small by almost any definition, but who choose not to associate themselves with that organization.

Given this difficulty in determining what exactly constitutes Small Schools or Rural Education, it is obvious that the Kansas Association of School Boards is involved in many ways in assistance to and promotion of "Rural Education."

Perhaps our most important role in Rural Education is in the training and in-service education of the policymakers in rural school districts, the local school board members. This is a role that until very recently has been almost ignored by other interest groups, although that is changing, as evidenced by this conference. KASB has for years, as a matter of course, included as a part of its programs, special segments directed toward the interests of small, rural schools.

This can be seen in the programs of our workshops and seminars, regional meeting programs and our annual convention. The same has also been true of the National School Boards Association, although as noted earlier, many Kansas school districts may have some problems with NSBA's definition of Rural Education. However, evidence of NSBA's concern can be seen in their recent creation of a Rural Education Project, an endeavor in which KASB was vitally involved.

A second major area of KASB involvement in Rural Education has been in our lobbying and representation activities in Topeka. Due to the nature of the governing structure of KASB, KASB Legislative Policies are essentially controlled by "small" school districts, since they significantly outnumber the "large" districts in our association. With the exception of school finance legislation, however, there has been little distinction in legislative goals between large and small school districts.

A point to consider here is the continuing reapportionment of the Kansas legislature which tends to give it a more urban character. If rural interests are to prevail in their legislative desires, they must be more and more willing to seek urban allies in the political decisions which are increasingly affecting education at all levels. This becomes more important as urban legislators express greater concern over what they see as the subsidization of small, uneconomical educational units.

To this extent, one of the greatest services KASB has provided to Rural Education has been in the provision of cooperative ventures. The Kansas Interlocal Government Cooperation Act, which has allowed school districts of all sizes to engage in joint activities which would have been impossible separately, was essentially a project of KASB, in cooperation with a number of rural legislators.

In addition, many of the KASB contract services, such as our Written Policy Service and our Computer Service, are utilized to a much greater extent by small school districts than by larger ones. Another area which offers great hope for expansion and saving of precious financial resources in small districts, is in the area of group insurance programs.

Our greatest weakness, I believe, in assistance to rural districts, has been in the area of curriculum development, a field which has been left primarily to the universities and the State Department of Education.

In summary, I believe that if rural education is to thrive and retain what its proponents see as its distinctive character, then all of the interest groups with a concern in this area are going to have to work more closely together, rather than independently of one another. They are also going to have to seek allies and tell their story effectively to those who do not presently see themselves as having a direct interest in Rural Education. It is unfortunate, but a reality, that in recent years, many legislators have come to see the financing of Kansas schools as a struggle between urban and rural interests. Unless both groups can come to an understanding of and concern for the other, the school children of Kansas will be the losers.

John W. Koepke received his B.A. from Kansas Wesleyan and his M.S. from Kansas State University in Educational Administration. He is Assistant Executive Director for the Kansas Association of School Boards.

Schools for Quality Education

Randall Gallion

Kansas has not yet taken her rightful place alongside several other states in bringing direct focus on rural education. Kansas, in spite of a continuing metropolitan growth, is at this point still a rural state. There is no place in our culture where we have neglected to acknowledge this, more than in education. Since the early '50s, when Dr. Conant's "Comprehensive High School" was in vogue, we all have done our best to become comprehensive high schools. Kansas has tried to solve her problems in rural areas by consolidation, unification, forced closure of attendance centers, and by trying to fit schools into patterns that were developed for large city schools. We have lifted our eyes unto the green metropolises and have striven gallantly toward the GREAT COMMANDMENT, *bigger is better.* Finally, on the far horizon, there appears to be a faint ray of recognition, after all these years that perhaps there was some pretty good education going on, even in some of those smaller schools across the state. Maybe if we had given more attention to the individual student, his competency and welfare, our frantic efforts of the '50s and '60s would have been directed.

It is now time that Kansas focuses on rural education. I have heard all the arguments. I am aware that probably over 70% of Kansas students are in schools above a thousand enrollment; that the per pupil cost is higher in small, rural schools; that more services can be offered and more curriculum can be provided, and many other advantages are available in the large school. All too often there are references to those inefficient, small, rural schools. One legislator remarked, "We can no longer afford the luxury of those small schools in Kansas." Two years ago in a legislative committee meeting, conferees from the state's five largest school systems belabored the administration of rural Kansas schools with such remarks as these quotes, "Those rural superintendents wouldn't know a gifted child if they met him face-to-face," and another, "You can't expect those rural schools to initiate a new program if it is not mandated—unless it will benefit their basketball team." Still another quote, "I attended a small rural school and I was deprived of a good education." After this presentation which lasted one hour and forty-five minutes, one committee member remarked that he thought that was one of the finest hearings that the committee had held.

If these people are right then it certainly is high time that Kansas begins to think *rural.* A National Seminar on Rural Education, May 29-31, 1979, sponsored by U.S. Dept. HEW and U.S. Dept. of Ag., at College Park, Maryland, wrote into their Preamble to the Recommendations, and I quote in part, "In addition, rural schools have a unique contribution to make to the nation's educational problems. Now that the difficulties of providing high quality education in a very large comprehensive school are increasingly apparent, the nation needs the knowledge of how to have effective education in smaller, more humane units."

Many other states are active in rural education: Oregon, Washington, Texas, Utah, Iowa, and now Colorado, to name a few. Why is Kansas not among them? Oregon has a splendid plan that would work well in Kansas.

It would seem that strong leadership for organizing such a movement in Kansas should come through the State Department of Education, with adequate resources there to study rural schools across the state and provide the machinery for developing a statewide movement. Schools for Quality Education held a conference with Education Department officials last April and learned that the Department was very supportive and interested in rural education. However, at that time, the Department could see no possibility of providing the kind of program and leadership that was being requested.

Schools for Quality Education made several contacts with members of the legislature during the last term. These were representatives from rural districts, and in every case, there was much enthusiasm for a rural education movement. During the last term, these contacts were too late in the session to get any action going, but at least two legislators expressed a desire to work on a program for this session. As soon as it was mentioned in committee, a member from Wichita said, "Well, we would like to make a study of the problems of the big schools as well." Herein lies our problem.

A crucial problem which never goes away is that of school finance. The distribution formula is a good example. Since its inception in 1973 there has been a continuous erosion of state aid money away from the smaller schools. It is based on the misconception that property wealth is indicative of the ability to pay taxes. The property tax is a class tax, limited to property owners, whether or not it produces income. More rural schools receive no state aid and others receive less in an unending pattern. In 1979-80, forty-seven schools got no basic aid and in 1980-81 there were fifty. Although the state pumped an additional $33,000,000 into basic aid, yet thirty-three schools got less this year than last. you can add to this problem also $2.49 billion worth of real estate in Kansas that is exempt from taxation. This is usually concentrated in central areas of large metropolitan districts. It does not include millions in tax-exempt revenue bonds and other properties that every large city offers as business incentives. Rural Kansas has been subsidizing metropolitan schools for years.

Kansas needs a strong rural education organization. At this time Schools for Quality Education comes closest to focusing on the needs of small schools, but for whatever the reasons might be, it represents only about 70 schools. There are 131 schools under 500 enrollment. There are 39 schools with 563 students in attendance. Another 90 schools between 500 and 1,000 enrollment have 62,387 students. That makes 221 schools under 1,000 enrollment with 101,951 students or about 25.5% of all the state's 398,923 students. In some manner, these schools should have a means by which they can present a united front in order to achieve common goals.

In closing, I would like to express my appreciation to Kansas State University for conducting this conference, and to all the people who have organized it. They have pro-

vided us with the opportunity to take a look at ourselves, and to explore the uniqueness, the problems and the needs of rural educaation. I for one, hope rural people of Kansas will take the maximum advantage of this exploratory study opportunity, and use it to come up with an effective program in Kansas for the improvement of rural education.

Randall Gallion has taught in Kansas schools for 47 years. Presently he is representing Schools for Quality Education as a legislative reporter.

100

Appendix A

CONFERENCE PRESENTERS

Welcome and Introduction	Dr. Jordan Utsey, Dean of College of Education, Kansas State University Dr. Duane Acker, President, Kansas State University
"Rural Education: A New Awakening"	Mary Gereau, Administrative Assistant to U.S. Sen. Melcher, Washington, D.C.
"What is Rural Education? The Past 50 Years"	Rosalie Farley, Professor Emeritus, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE
"What is Rural Education? The Next 50 Years"	Paul Nachtigal, Rural Education Specialist, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Denver, CO
"Vocational Education in a Rural Setting"	Jean Hansen, President-Elect American Vocational Association, Red Lake Falls, MN
"Higher Education and Rural Youth"	Ronald Downey, Associate Professor, Center for Student Development, Kansas State University
"The Role of the Government in Rural Education"	Merle Bolton, Commissioner, Kansas State Dept. of Education, Topeka, KS Fred Weaver, Minority Leader, Kansas House of Representatives, Baxter Springs, KS Donald Crumbaker, Vice-Chairperson, House Education Committee, Kansas House of Representatives, Br[illegible]ster, KS
"The Role of Interest Groups in Rural Education"	L.C. Nixon, Director, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Kansas City, MO Randall Gallion, Lobbyist, Schools for Quality Education, Mullinville, KS Ivan Muse, Director of Rural Education, Bigham Young University, Provo, UT John Koepke, Assistant Executive Director Kansas Association of School Boards, Topeka, KS
"Career Development in Rural Education"	Roger Baskerville, Superintendent, Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, IA
"Looking at the Rural School in Rural Education"	Everett Edington, Director, ERIC/CRESS, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM
"Rural Teacher Recruitment and Retention"	Jim Akin, Associate Director, Career Planning and Placement Center, Kansas State University
"School Finance in Rural Education"	James Jess, Superintendent, CAL Community Schools, Latimer, IA
"Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education"	Wayne Comer, Superintendent, Moscow, KS Dean Newsome, School Board Member, Lewis, KS Larry Thomas, Superintendent, Rozel, KS Marilyn Stueve, High School Teacher, Madison, KS
"Grantsmanship for Improving Rural Schools"	Willie Epps, Assistant to the Vice President of Special Programs, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville, IL
"Federal Role in Rural Education	Tom Schultz, Rural School Team Leader, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C.

"Rural Education: A Part of the Whole"	Harold Blackburn, Regional Commissioner of Education, U.S. Dept. of Education, Kansas City, MO
"Political Action in Rural Education"	Roger Baskerville, Superintendent, Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, IA
"Two Sides to Education: Technical and Human"	Jack Larson, Director of Seminars, Master Teacher, Manhattan, KS
"The Plight of Minorities in Rural Education"	Willie Epps, Assistant to the Vice President of Special Programs, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville, IL
"Curriculum Development in Rural Education"	Doug Christensen, Superintendent of Schools, Colby, KS
"Population Trends in Kansas"	Donald Adamchak, Assistant Professor Dept. of Sociology, Anthropology, and Social Work, Kansas State University
"The Role of Higher Education in Rural Education"	Ivan Muse, Director of Rural Education, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT
"The Quest for Better Rural Schools"	James Jess, Superintendent, CAL Community Schools, Latimer, IA
"Pre-Service Teacher Education for Rural Teaching"	Richard Baker, Fort Hays State University, Hays, KS Roy Bartel, Kansas State University Novy Bowman, Kansas University, Lawrence, KS Stu Ervay, Emporia State University, Emporia, KS Jim Fisher, Wichita State University, Wichita, KS Reed McKinney, Pittsburg State University, Pittsburg, KS La Monte Lauridsen, Baker University, Baldwin City, KS
"Curriculum and Methodologies in Rural Schools"	Virginia Nolder, Rossville Elementary School Larry Hart, St. Mary High School, St. Marys Lana Oleen, St. George High School Joel Heck, Minneapolis Grade School, Minneapolis, KS
"Research Issues and Questions in Rural Education"	Paul Nachtigal, Rural Education Specialist, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Denver, CO Everett Edington, Director, ERIC/CRESS, Nex Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM Ivan Muse, Director of Rural Education Brigham Young University, Provo, UT Tom Schultz, Rural School Team Leader, National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C.
"Development of Rural Cooperatives"	Jean Hansen, President-Elect, American Vocational Association, Red Lake Falls, MN
"Role and Responsibility of Administrators in Rural Schools"	Dale Carlson, Superintendent of Schools, Barnes, KS
"Using Community Resources"	Paul Fleener, Kansas Farm Bureau, Manhattan, KS Sam Zuercher, Hesston Corp., Hesston, KS Ron Hanser, Conference & Program Development, Farmland Industries, Kansas City, MO

"Conference Wrap-Up and Summary"

Robert Scott, Professor, Adult and Occupational Education, Kansas State University
Gerald Bailey, Professor, Curriculum and Instruction, Kansas State University

Appendix B

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Appendix C

KSU RURAL EDUCATION TEAM

Gerald Bailey, Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Patricia Brown, Instructor
Division of Continuing Education

Richard Hause, Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Ronald Hoffman, Director
Media Center

Jerry Horn, Associate Dean
College of Education

Ray Kurtz, Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Harvey Littrell, Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Robert Meisner, Professor
Adult and Occupational

Robert Newhouse, Professor
Administration and Foundations

Michael Penrod, Research Associate
Administration and Foundations

Robert Scott, Professor
Adult and Occupational

William Sparkman, Associate Professor
Administration and Foundations

G. Kent Stewart, Associate Professor
Administration and Foundations

Fred Teague, Professor
Curriculum and Instruction

Appendix D

Program

Rural and Small School Conference

November 10-11, 1980
K-State Union

Agenda

Monday, November 10, 1980

8:30 a.m. - 9:30 a.m. Registration and Coffee
2nd Floor Concourse

9:30 a.m. - 9:45 a.m. *Welcome and Introduction*—**Dr. Jordan Utsey**, Dean, College of Education, Kansas State University; **Dr. Duane Acker**, President, Kansas State University
Big 8

9:45 a.m. - 10:30 a.m. *Rural Education: A New Awakening*—**Mary Gereau**, Administrative Assistant to U.S. Senator Melcher of Montana, Washington, DC
Big 8

Chairman: Jordan Utsey, Dean, College of Education, KSU
Host: Nancy Smith

10:30 a.m. - 11:15 a.m. *What is Rural Education? The Past 50 Years*—**Rosalie Farley**, Professor Emeritus, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE
Option I
212

Chairman: Ken Root, Superintendent, Chapman
Hosts: Mary E. Griffith, Mary L. Pasley

Option II *What is Rural Education? The Next 50 Years*—**Paul Nachtigal**, Rural Education Specialist, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Denver, CO
213

Chairman: George Ansmutz, Superintendent, Eskridge
Hosts: Marvin Hachmeister, Dan Niemczyk

11:15 a.m. - 12 noon *Vocational Education in a Rural Setting*—**Jean Hansen**, President-Elect, American Vocational Association, Red Lake Falls, MN
Option I
212

Chairman: Dean Prochaska, Director, Vocational Education, KSDE, Topeka
Host: Laura Meeks

Option II *Higher Education and Rural Youth*—**Ronald Downey**, Associate Professor, Center for Student Development, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS
213

Chairman: Lewis Hitch, Superintendent, Westmoreland
Hosts: Joyce Terrass, Kaye Beikmann

12:05 - 1:25 p.m. Luncheon
Flint Hills *The Role of the Government in Rural Education*—**Merle R. Bolton**, Commissioner, Kansas State Department of Education, Topeka, KS; **Fred Weaver**, Minority Leader, Kansas House of Representatives, Baxter Springs, KS; **Donald E. Crumbaker**, Vice-Chairperson, House Education Committee, Kansas House of Representatives, Brewster, KS

Chairman: Jordan Utsey, KSU
Moderator: Jerry Horn, Associate Dean, College of Education, KSU
Host: Roy Bartel

1:30 p.m. - 2:25 p.m. *The Role of Interest Groups in Rural Education*—**L.C. Nixon**, Director, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Kansas City, KS and Denver, CO; **Randall W. Gallion**, Lobbyist, Schools for Quality Education, Mullinville, KS; **Ivan D. Muse**, Director of Rural Education, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT; **John Koepke**, Assistant Executive Director, Kansas Association of School Boards, Topeka, KS
Option I
212

Moderator: William Curtis, Executive Director, Kansas Society of Architects, Inc., Topeka, KS
Hosts: J. Harvey Littrell, Kristi Ringen

Option II *Career Development in Rural Education*—**Roger Baskerville**, Superintendent, Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, IA
213

Chairman: John Shaw, Superintendent, LaCrosse
Hosts: Harry McAnarney, Jennifer Wagner

2:30 p.m. - 3:25 p.m. *Looking at the Rural School in Rural Education*—**Everett Edington**, Director, ERIC/CRESS, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM
Option I
212

Chairman: Don Vaughn, Superintendent, Clifton
Hosts: Lynn Hausmann, Sandy Burns

Option II *Rural Teacher Recruitment and Retention*—**Jim Akin**, Associate Director, Career Planning and Placement Center, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS
213

Chairman: Lew McGill, Superintendent, Riley
Hosts: Ronald R. Rosenblatt, Sheree Lambert

3:30 p.m. - 4:25 p.m. *School Finance in Rural Education*—**James Jess**, Superintendent, CAL Community Schools,
Option I
212

Chairman: Lance Nichols, Superintendent, Glasco
Hosts: Michael C. Holen, Stan Park

Option II *Pursuits, Problems, and Pleasures of Rural Education*—**Wayne Comer**, Superintendent, Moscow, KS; **Dean Newsome**, School Board Member, Lewis, KS; **Larry Thomas**, Superintendent, Rozel, KS; **Marilyn Stueve**, High School Teacher, Madison, KS
213

Moderator: Jim Easter, Superintendent, Skyline
Host: Diane Stump

4:30 p.m. - 5:25 p.m. *Grantsmanship for Improving Rural Education*—**Willie Epps**, Associate Dean, College of Education, University of South Alabama, Mobile, AL
Option I
212

Chairman: Jack Hobbs, Superintendent, Goodland
Hosts: Paul Burden, Joe Rickabaugh

Option II *Federal Role in Rural Education*—**Tom Schultz**, Rural School Team Leader, National Institute of Education, Washington, DC
213

Chairman: Richard R. Connell, Superintendent, Claflin, Kansas
Host: Charles Heerman

5:30 p.m. - 6:25 p.m. Social Hour

6:30 p.m. Dinner

Ballroom *Rural Education: A Part of the Whole*—**Harold L. Blackburn**, Regional Commissioner of Education, U.S. Department of Education, Kansas City, MO

Chairman: Jerry Horn, KSU
Host: Robert Scott

Kansas State University
Rural and Small School Conference

Tuesday, November 11, 1980

8:30 a.m. - 8:55 a.m. Coffee and Social

9:00 a.m. - 9:55 a.m.
Option I, 212 *Political Action in Rural Education*—**Roger Baskerville**, Superintendent, Lohrville Community Schools, Lohrville, IA

Chairman: Walter Hayes, Superintendent, Rolla
Hosts: James Albracht, Theresia Steiner

Option II, 213 *Two Sides to Education: Technical and Human*—**Jack Larson**, Director of Seminars, Master Teacher, Manhattan, KS

Chairman: Harold Clark, Superintendent, Concordia
Hosts: Mike Penrod, Wayne Goss

10:00 a.m. - 10:55 a.m.
Option I, 212 *The Plight of Minorities in Rural Education*—**Willie Epps**, Associate Dean, College of Education, University of South Alabama, Mobile, AL

Chairman: Louis Holaday, Superintendent, Seneca
Hosts: Harlan Trennepohl, Lori Butterfield

Option II, 213 *Curriculum Development in Rural Schools*—**Douglas D. Christensen**, Superintendent of Schools, Colby, KS

Chairman: Jack Applegate, Superintendent, Axtell
Host: **Sheree Lambert**

11:00 a.m. - 11:55 a.m.
Option I, 212 *Population Trends in Kansas*—**Donald Adamchak**, Assistant Professor, Department of Sociology, Anthropology, and Social Work, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS

Chairman: Lyle Goff, Superintendent, Ness City
Hosts: Norma Dyck, Kaye Beikmann

Option II, 213 *The Role of Higher Education in Rural Education*—**Ivan D. Muse**, Director of Rural Education, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT

Chairman: Gerald Bailey, KSU
Host: John Steffen

12:00 noon - 12:55 p.m. Luncheon

Flint Hills *The Quest for Better Rural Schools*—**James Jess**, Superintendent, CAL Community Schools, Latimer, IA

Chairman: Jerry Horn, KSU
Host: Gerald Bailey

1:00 p.m. - 2:25 p.m.
Option I, 212 *Pre-Service Teacher Education for Rural Teaching*—**Richard Baker**, Fort Hays State University, Hays, KS; **Roy Bartel**, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS; **Novy Bowman**, Kansas University, Lawrence, KS; **Stu Ervay**, Emporia State University, Emporia, KS; **Jim Fisher**, Wichita State University, Wichita, KS; **Reed McKinney**, Pittsburg State University, Pittsburg, KS; **LaMonte Lauridsen**, Baker University, Baldwin City, KS

Moderator: Ray Kurtz, Professor, College of Education, KSU
Host: Lori Butterfield

Option II, 213 *Curriculum and Methodologies in Rural Schools*—**Virginia Nolder**, Rossville Elementary School; **Larry Hart**, St. Mary High School. St. Marys; **Lana Oleen**, St. George High School, St. George; **Joel Heck**, Minneapolis Grade School, Minneapolis, KS

Moderator: Richard Hause, Professor, College of Education, KSU
Host: Sandy Burns

2:30 p.m. - 3:30 p.m.
Option I, 212 *Research, Issues and Questions in Rural Education*—**Paul Nachtigal**, Rural Education Specialist, Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Denver, CO; **Everett Edington**, Director, ERIC/CRESS, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM; **Ivan D. Muse**, Director of Rural Education, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT; **Tom Schultz**, Rural School Team Leader, National Institute of Education, Washington, DC

Moderator: Robert Newhouse, Associate Professor, College of Education, KSU
Host: Krista Vaughn

Option II, 213 *Development of Rural Cooperatives*—**Jean Hansen**, President-Elect, American Vocational Association, Red Lake Falls, MN

Chairman: Dean Prochaska, Director, Vocational Education, KSDE, Topeka
Hosts: Janice Wissman, Dale Davidson

3:30 p.m. - 4:25 p.m.
Option I, 212 *Role and Responsibility of Administrators in Rural Schools*—**Dale Carlson**, Superintendent of Schools, Barnes, KS

Chairman: Elmer Reid, Superintendent, Hope
Hosts: G. Kent Stewart, Clark Harris

Option II, 213 *Using Community Resources; Labor and Industry*—Management Representation from Farmland Industries, Kansas City, MO; Hesston Manufacturing Company, Hesston, KS; Kansas Farm Bureau, Manhattan, KS

Moderator: Robert Meisner, Professor, College of Education, KSU
Host: Charles Oaklief

4:30 p.m. - 4:45 p.m.
212 *Conference Wrap-Up and Summary*—**Robert Scott**, Professor, Adult and Occupational Education; **Gerald Bailey**, Associate Professor, Curriculum and Instruction, Kansas State University—Co-Chairpersons